The Nation.

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The Week.

THE House has adopted the rules reported by the Committee, by a strict party vote. The only important changes are the bestowal on the Speaker of the power to have members put on the journal as present whom he sees in the House, for the purpose of forming a quorum, and of the power to refuse to put "dilatory motions"—that is, motions which he deems offered merely for purposes of delay. He has already shown by his behavior in the late crisis the use he is capable of making of these powers. At all events, under them he can make filibustering impossible, and the majority will have power to push through all the wild schemes which are now stewing in their brains, most of them simply undisguised attacks on the taxpayers. The consoling feature of the situation is, that there will be no difficulty in fixing the responsibility for whatever is done. Neither party has ever had the House so completely under its control as the Republicans have the present one. Changes in the procedure, with the view of facilitating the despatch of business and putting down factious obstruction, may be necessary, but all such changes as those which have been just made increasing the Speaker's powers, in order not to be dangerous, should involve also a change in the manner of filling his office. They demand his complete dissociation from party leadership and from partisanship in every form, and the surrounding of the Chair with a thoroughly judicial atmosphere. Consequently, they make the appearance in it clothed with these extraordinary powers, of a man who has made such an exhibition of violence and unscrupulousness as Mr. Reed has made during the past few weeks, an absurdity as well as an outrage. The only defence the minority has against such a Speaker, under the new rules, is the certainty that their turn will come some day, and their Speaker will then be able to pay off all scores. But the spectacle of a great deliberative body governing its procedure by the *lex talionis* is a very sorry one. The Republican notion of what constitutes fairness in such procedure was well illustrated in the debate on Friday by some remarks of Mr. Grosvenor, a prominent Republican member from Ohio, who was accused of having filibustered two years ago against the Democratic proposal to tack on an appropriation *ad hoc* to every bill granting a pension or increasing one. "Yes," said he; "but when hostility to the old veterans was rife, filibustering was patriotism." In other words, it is right to filibuster for your own purposes, but wrong for any other man to filibuster for his.

A fresh illustration of the drift towards centralization in the Republican party is furnished by the introduction in Congress of a bill forbidding any State to make any changes in the Congressional districts now existing until after the next census has been taken. The present apportionment in Ohio, made by a Republican Legislature a few years ago, enabled the Republicans in 1888 to elect sixteen out of the twenty-one Representatives in Congress from that State, although the Democrats polled nearly half the votes. The Democrats now control the Legislature, and have been talking about turning the tables by gerrymandering the State so that their party may get sixteen of the twenty-one Representatives next time, and the proposed law of Congress is intended to block this scheme. No such attempt at interference in the States has ever been made by Congress before, and it is obviously opposed to the spirit of the Constitution, even if it is permitted by its letter. We note with surprise and pleasure that the Indianapolis *Journal*, thorough-going Republican organ that it is, condemns the project as "a measure of doubtful constitutionality and wisdom." It says that "this looks like an attempt at arbitrary restriction of the right of a State to redistrict, and the more so because the Ohio Legislature is now proposing to do so. Ohio redistricts every four years, and we understand this is her regular year for doing so. It may be the regular year for several other States. For Congress to override the districting laws of these States for no other purpose, apparently, than to prevent a threatened gerrymander in one of them, would be an act of very doubtful wisdom, to say the least."

The intention of a certain number of scurvy politicians to kill the Civil-Service Law by withholding the appropriation needed by the Commissioners to carry out its provisions has been boldly announced. The amount needed to execute the law, since the Railway Mail Service has been brought under it, is about $75,000. Every vote against this appropriation or in favor of cutting it down will be the vote of a coward, like Senator Farwell of Illinois, who said that he and his kind would defeat the law in that way, as they had done once before. Meanwhile, Senators are passing bills that "have money in them" with marked liberality towards each other. On Feb. 11 Senator Allison wanted a couple of bills put through for public buildings at Sioux City and Cedar Rapids, one for $500,000 and the other for $200,000, intended undoubtedly to facilitate his own reëlection; and those bills were put through without debate, as though the Senate were issuing passes and marking them "Complimentary." That the rest of them will want passes and will get them may be inferred from the fact that Senator Stanford on the same day reported from the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds bills for nineteen new buildings at various small towns like Sterling, Ill., Reno, Nev., Pawtucket, R. I., Hastings, Neb., Stillwater, Minn., etc., the total for which is $3,045,000. This, however, is only an instalment, a beginning, as it were. There is some danger that the industry of Mr. Stanford's committee will leave little room for the energy of the Committees on Pensions, on Rivers and Harbors, and on Steamship Subsidies.

A list of these passes issued or to be issued by the Senate to its own members will no doubt be interesting to the public. They are as follows:

Complimentary	To Senators
Oakland, Cal., Stockton, Cal., San Diego. Cal.,	Stanford.
Sterling, Ill.	Farwell.
Chester, Pa.	Cameron.
Portland, Ore., The Dalles, Ore.,	Mitchell.
Virginia City, Nev., Reno, Nev.,	Jones.
Burlington, Iowa, Sioux City, Iowa, Cedar Rapids, Iowa,	Allison.

The terms of all these Senators expire in 1891, and it is well to have their passes issued immediately. The term of Senator Aldrich of Rhode Island does not expire till 1893, but he has two compliments in the list in the way of public buildings at Pawtucket and Woonsocket.

The Union Pacific Funding Bill was defeated in the last Congress by filibustering on the part of a select body of Representatives led by two Republican members, Anderson of Kansas and Payson of Illinois. It is believed that the new rules of the House, under the keen discernment of Speaker Reed, will be effective in choking off these gentlemen and passing the bill. It is surmised by some that the new rules were designed more especially for this purpose than for the punishment of the Democratic minority. The Union Pacific Funding Bill ought to have passed last year. In its new form, as reported by Senator Frye, it is a proper and meritorious measure. But any enlargement of the Speaker's authority in the way of "counting a quorum," or of deciding what is a dilatory motion, will be equally available to pass any other bill that has "funding" of one kind or another for its motive-power. Therefore all such measures become doubly dangerous, and should be more closely scanned than ever. So far as the Union Pacific is concerned, the facts were so fully set forth in the report of the majority of the Commission appointed by President Cleveland, consisting of Messrs. E. Ellery Anderson and David T. Littler, that nothing can now be added. The recommendation was that the Government should extend the debt for a period of fifty years at 3 per cent. interest, and take a lien on all the property, including the branch lines, as security. The alternative to this would seem to be the taking of the road itself a few years hence and operating it on Government account without being able to control the branch

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lines. We have not heard that anybody is in favor of that.

The sugar question, as it stands related to the tariff, is reaching an acute stage. The Republican politicians are strongly moved to repeal the duties on raw sugar, because that step would alone dispose of the Treasury surplus, and, in their opinion, would render unnecessary, if not impossible, any further reductions of the tariff. But the admission of raw sugar free would not cheapen sugar to the consumer very much unless the duty on refined were repealed also. To repeal all duties on sugar, both raw and refined, would attack the sacred principle of protection, and also violate the $100,000 bargain with the Sugar Trust, supposing such a bargain to have been made. Moreover, the beet and sorghum-growers in California and Kansas are apt to get into an ugly mood if their whack at the sugar market is disturbed. To placate them, a bounty of two cents per pound, payable out of the Treasury on certificates of production duly signed and sealed by some officer of the Government, has been proposed, but has not met with much favor among the intended beneficiaries, who fear that the bounty would not be permanent. They prefer to take their chances in the tariff rather than in the bounty. It is a great puzzle every way. The bounty, as everybody can see, would be just as available to the refiner as to the grower, and it is more than likely that some Democrat would offer an amendment that all sugar duties of every name and nature be repealed, and that the bounty be divided between the grower and the refiner in the same ratio that the tariff is now divided. Then we might have an interesting debate, going to the root of the question.

One of the drollest attacks on the surplus was made a few days ago in the House by Mr. Chipman of Michigan, who introduced a bill providing for the payment of "a just and suitable remuneration" to a Detroit physician for having discovered a cure for "sporadic pneumonia and grip." It appears the physician cannot protect his discovery by patent, and the rules of his own profession forbid his keeping it secret, so that he is in a sorry plight if he does not get a bonus from the Government. When one reads such things, one may well ask whether any people, once independent as well as free, has ever travelled so rapidly towards both paternalism and maternalism as we have done in the last twenty-five years. Under the training given us by our dear mamma, the tariff, everybody who finds his business unprofitable, or his practice unremunerative, or his credit low, bethinks him of some plan of getting help from the Treasury. If he cannot get an office, he wants a bonus, or if he cannot get a bonus, he wants a loan without security, or some kind of money which will be cheap when he receives it, but dear when he pays it out.

Philadelphia seems to be the centre of disturbance in the woollen industry at present, the failures following each other with startling rapidity. Considerable interest has, therefore, been taken in the bold if hopeless candidacy of Mr. Ayres for the seat in Congress made vacant by the death of Judge Kelley. Mr. Ayres is himself a woollen-manufacturer and a Republican, and took his stand on the platform of free raw materials. The Philadelphia *Press* is much stirred up by this revolt at the headquarters of protectionism, and it labors strenuously to show that free wool will put an end to wool-growing in the United States, and deliver the manufacturers up to the exactions of shepherds in South America, Australia, the Cape of Good Hope, Asia Minor, the East Indies, Great Britain, Canada, etc., etc. This is a terrible picture. It reminds us of the foraging soldier in the late war who was stopped on his return to camp with a dead sheep on his shoulder. "Didn't you know," asked the sentry, "that strict orders had been given against pillaging?" "I'll teach sheep to bite me," was the conclusive answer. If the *Press* is afraid that the wool-growers of the Argentine Republic, southern Russia, and other fierce countries will bite our manufacturers, its fears are not shared by Mr. Ayres and his supporters, who, it appears, include a goodly number of operatives in woollen mills as well as many who have been cast out of employment by the recent failures in that trade.

The question before the Republican party in Iowa is an ugly one. On the one hand, the prohibition element in the party, which is very strong, insists that it shall maintain the existing law, and even increase its rigors. As a correspondent of the Keokuk *Gate City* puts it, the Republicans have "put down the rebellion and freed the slaves"; now "they must put down that wicked monster, Rum"; they must "take hold of this matter and fight it with all their might until the victory is won and the monster is dead, dead, dead." The editor of the *Gate City* turns a shower-bath of fact and logic upon this sentimentalist. He tells him that "parties and government are practical matters and depend upon what you can do, not what you cannot." He says that there was practically about the same amount of intemperance under the no-liquor-law system of Territorial times in Iowa and the modified prohibition system which followed, that there has been since the cast-iron prohibition law was passed. So far as the question concerns politics, a Democratic Governor has been elected "simply because the body of the people of the State don't really care to sustain the views of the temperance people when it comes to a matter of applied law, and, after yielding to letting them apply their views, they have themselves rebelled against what they tacitly acquiesced in." As regards the Republican party, therefore, the lesson which the editor draws is, that it must drop prohibition or get beaten.

The State of New York has drifted into a new phase of unconstitutionalism, by the failure of the Governor and the Legislature to provide for the taking of an enumeration of the inhabitants for the purpose of making legislative districts according to the changes of population. By an evident mistake, the State Constitution provides that only the State enumeration shall be used for redistricting purposes. Therefore the United States census, although undoubtedly more accurate than any State census would be, cannot be used. The Legislature and the Governor being in disagreement as to the terms of the bill for taking a State enumeration, the injustice of the old apportionment of legislative districts continues, and becomes more aggravated from year to year. The Governor is technically right in holding that the Constitution provides only for an enumeration of the inhabitants. It does not provide for the taking of a census which shall include other things. He is practically wrong in withholding his assent from bills which do include other things, for if we should have a State census, that would include an enumeration of the inhabitants upon which a new apportionment could be made. Any new apportionment would be better than the present one, and probably more advantageous to the Democratic party than the present one. As the matter now stands, the Constitution provides that a certain thing *shall be done*. But the thing is not done, and there is no remedy. The same thing happened when the Legislature failed to call a constitutional convention in 1886.

A meeting was held at Cooper Institute on Monday evening chiefly to denounce Tom Platt, a private person carrying on an express business in lower Broadway. Speeches were made by Warner Miller and Chauncey M. Depew having no other purport than the exposition of Platt, not as a bad expressman, who fails to deliver packages intrusted to him with punctuality and in good order, but as an autocrat who misuses the legislative, executive, and judicial powers of government in the Empire State, and needs to be put on the right track. Strange to say, the meeting had the intended effect, for, just after Miller and Depew had finished speaking, a messenger from the expressman appeared on the scene and said that, if the by-laws of a certain committee, unknown to the Constitution and laws of the Empire State, should be changed so that a two-thirds vote should be required on any proposition for expending $10,000,000 of public funds, then the expressman would guarantee that another committee, equally unknown to the Constitution and laws, would agree that the first-mentioned Committee should have the money of the taxpayers of New York to the extent named, and should also have the right to take private property to any extent they might deem necessary for any length of time they might deem necessary for a World's Fair. While the expressman's envoy was delivering his message, the audience was hooting and hissing every mention of his name so that it was almost impossible for the ambassador to make himself heard. But when the purport of it came to be understood, the public wrath instantly turned to gratitude. Then Mr. Depew moved three

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cheers for the expressman, and these were given with tremendous energy. And strong men wept, we suppose, because that is what strong men usually do when civil liberty is recovered.

In its remarkable statement of Friday, that "people here well know that Hill succeeded [in the election of 1888] only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship," the *Tribune* forgot for the moment that no man can sell unless some one else buys, and that if Hill sold the Presidency, then the Republicans bought it. The statement even goes further than that, for it amounts to an admission that the Republicans would not have elected Harrison if Hill had not given them Democratic votes for Harrison in return for Republican votes for Hill. To carry out this bargain, Hill had to betray Cleveland and the Republicans had to betray Warner Miller. The *Tribune* says directly that precisely this was done, for it declares that "Hill succeeded *only* because *he was able* to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." That means that if no such bargain had been executed, Cleveland would have been elected President and Miller would have been elected Governor. There is no other interpretation possible. That such a revelation should be made by the leading Republican organ of the country, whose editor is an appointee of Harrison, and consequently a subordinate of his Administration, and made without a sign of consciousness that it is in any way a shameful and disgracing disclosure, is astonishing.

Let us look for a moment at the elements which entered into this sale. Gov. Hill offered the Presidency, which carried with it the loss to the country of the best President it had had for many years, defeated the desire of the people for tariff reform and a reduction of taxation, and gave it instead the present Administration, which not only refuses tariff reform, but raises tariff duties and increases the burden of taxation, breaks all its most solemn reform pledges, and is giving the country the most profligate management of the various branches of the Government which has been known since President Grant's second term. In return for this service from Gov. Hill, the Republicans consented to turn the Government of the State of New York over to him for a third term, knowing that by so doing they were preventing all chance of high-license and probably of ballot-reform legislation for the next three years, and insuring during that period the continuation of a State administration which they are now denouncing daily as the worst which the State has ever seen. Their conduct in thus selling out the State for the Presidency was in accord with their conduct in running Col. Erhardt for Mayor and selling out the city in the same interest. To call a party capable of such infamies the "party of moral ideas," and to insist that it contains a larger part of the virtue and intelligence of the people, especially after its chief organ makes unblushing confession of them, are feats in audacity which ought to tax the capacities of even a muzzled journalist.

The *Tribune's* confession recalls the similar admission made in the Legislature, just about a year ago, by Mr. Ainsworth, a Republican Assemblyman, who had been chairman of a committee to investigate the ceiling scandal. That investigation had shown that the State had been robbed of about $100,000, because the Republicans had entered into a "deal" with Gov. Hill to divide the profits of the job. Mr. Ainsworth took the floor to explain the matter on February 27, and delivered a speech which closed with the following direct admission that, if the "deal" had not been arranged, Cleveland and not Harrison would have been elected President: "We ought not to have done it. We ought to have left it in the hands of Commissioner Perry, and let the politics take care of itself, and *we should have had a Democratic President instead of a Republican if we had done it.*" When that frank declaration was made, the *Tribune*, more cautious than it is now, carefully edited it into a harmless form. We tried in vain at that time to induce the *Tribune* to publish the official text of Mr. Ainsworth's speech. Now, after a year's meditation, it goes far beyond him, and declares that not only did the Republicans buy the Presidency, but they sold the Governorship to Hill as a part of the bargain. Mr. Ainsworth was refused a renomination because of his reckless exposure of party secrets, yet his offence was in every way less heinous than that of the *Tribune*, for he was not a member of the Harrison Administration, and did not speak with official authority, as the *Tribune* does.

The Young Men's Democratic Club of Boston has make a striking exhibit, based upon carefully collected figures from official sources, of the way in which civil-service reform was applied in Massachusetts during President Cleveland's Administration. There were, when that Administration began, on March 5, 1885, 2,256 employees in the Federal service of the State, distributed as follows: City post-offices, 874; town post-offices, 692; custom-houses, 483; miscellaneous, 207. Of these forces there were still in office on March 5, 1889, the following: City post-offices, 695; town post-offices, 323; custom-houses, 279; miscellaneous, 130; total, 1,427. In other words, nearly 65 per cent. of the Federal employees were allowed to remain undisturbed throughout the entire Cleveland Administration, though they were presumably nearly or quite all Republicans. The Custom-house figures emphasize the disgraceful conduct of the President in removing Collector Saltonstall before his term had expired, for they show, what is universally admitted, that Mr. Saltonstall had conducted the office in strict compliance with the Civil-Service Law, which the President had solemnly pledged himself to uphold.

Mr. Cleveland intends to have no misunderstanding concerning his attitude towards ballot reform. In a recent interview published in the Baltimore *Sun*, he says that he regards the official ballot as the "vital principle" of the reform; that to permit the use of an unofficial ballot "would leave the door as wide open as ever to bribery and corruption," and that an "official ballot only would sweep away to a very great extent, if not entirely, all excuse for campaign funds—that fruitful source of bribery and corruption; for if the State paid all the expenses of the elections, there would be little plea to levy assessments upon candidates and contributions from interested outsiders." These are the arguments which ballot-reformers have made from the outset of their movement as showing the superiority of their system over the bogus one advocated by Gov. Hill and Tammany Hall. There is one other which Mr. Cleveland did not mention, and that is, that until the adoption of the exclusive official-ballot system has removed all excuse for expenses of elections and assessments, and contributions to meet them, we cannot have an efficacious law limiting the expenditures of candidates and requiring sworn publication of all disbursements after election.

The departure of Dr. Nin, the delegate from Uruguay to the Pan-American Congress, on account of the necessity of meeting a prior engagement in England, gave him occasion to recapitulate the work of that body thus far, and to foreshadow the position of the South Americans on the main questions. He makes short work of the famous American Zollverein, saying that it could not be brought about without the cancellation of the treaties existing between South American countries and Europe, and hinting—always in courteous phrase, of course—that it is a trifle cool in the United States to dream of even proposing such a thing. On the project of a common silver coinage, also, Dr. Nin threw considerable cold water, remarking that, as far as Uruguay was concerned, there was no prospect of adopting any other than a gold standard, with silver used merely for subsidiary coins. The Argentine Republic will undoubtedly say the same thing. Some of the Central American republics, on the other hand, are much in favor of the scheme, and it is possible that they, with perhaps one or two South American countries, may make an agreement with the United States on their own account. The project as reported seems to provide for such a thing. But even so, as the foreign delegates understand perfectly, the silver question is at present such a football in our Congress that the most perfect Pan-American measure is as likely to be killed incontinently as to be endorsed. As to matters of copyright, extradition, and commercial law, Dr. Nin points out with much justice that the Montevideo Congress took the lead in all those matters for South America, and that the simplest thing for us to do is to give in our adhesion to the results there reached. As to subsidized steamships, the delegate from Uruguay expresses the willingness of his country to let us spend our whole surplus in that amusement if we are bent on it.

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THE BRATTLEBORO POST-OFFICE.

THE town of Brattleboro, Vt., represents perhaps as high a type of intelligence and civic virtue as any place of its size in the country, or in the world. It has about 10,000 inhabitants, and about four-fifths of its voters are Republicans. It is the home of Col. Hooker, the Vermont member of the National Republican Committee, and formerly Secretary of said Committee. Its Postmaster is Capt. F. W. Childs, who was appointed by President Cleveland in January, 1886. As all such appointments are made for four years, and as Capt. Childs had been allowed to serve out his term, it became necessary in due course for Congressman Grout to be looking for a successor. But before any selection had been made, there was put into his hands a petition signed by about 800 Republicans of Brattleboro, and of the vicinity served by the Brattleboro Post-office, asking for the reappointment of the Democratic Postmaster, Childs. No encomiums upon Mr. Childs's management of the Post-office could add anything to this unexampled endorsement of his neighbors who were at the same time his political opponents.

When this petition was received at Washington, a hasty consultation was held by the Vermont delegation. The number and character of the petitioners were too formidable to be ignored or set aside. But the example of appointing a Democrat to an office in the gift of a Republican Administration was held to be extremely dangerous. So it was decided to refer the subject back to the Republican voters of Brattleboro, to be decided by them at a caucus to be held under the direction of the Republican Town Committee. Meanwhile Col. Hooker had procured a Republican candidate for the office, Mr. G. A. Hines, a perfectly reputable man connected with the Estey Organ Works, although Col. Estey himself was an active supporter of Mr. Childs. Col. Estey, by the way, is the President of the Vermont League of Republican Clubs.

The Republican Town Committee fixed the day for the caucus and the qualifications of voters, and appointed judges of the election. The qualifications were that the person offering to vote had voted for Harrison at the last Presidential election, or that, being a minor then, his sympathies were with the Republican party in that campaign. Women who were taxpayers and twenty-one years of age, and of Republican sympathies, were also allowed to vote. The election was very exciting, but very orderly. Party lines were drawn as tightly as they could be in a case where only one party was allowed to vote. Col. Hooker marshalled the regulars with the assistance of a Special Agent of the Treasury. The only Federal office-holder in that quarter who appeared to take no interest in the proceedings was Capt. Childs himself. From the beginning to the end he stayed inside his office and gave the strictest attention to the United States mails. The Brattleboro *Phœnix*, the Republican newspaper of the town, supported Capt. Childs with vigor, candor, and fearlessness.

When the day of election came, all the factories were closed, all business was suspended, carriages and hacks flew hither and thither to bring in the aged and infirm, the infant population was stirred as though Buffalo Bill were coming, and rival dinner parties for the ladies were given by Mrs. Hooker and Mrs. Estey. Woman suffrage appears to have won a triumph. Says the *Phœnix:*

"The novel and interesting feature of the afternoon, as expected, was the appearance of women as voters in the meeting. A contingent of ladies took seats in the gallery as spectators at the opening of the meeting, and remained during the afternoon. Early among the women voters was Mrs. Edward Crosby, who accompanied her husband to the polls to cast her vote for Mr. Childs. Shortly after three o'clock a procession of fifty women, led by Mrs. J. J. Estey and Mrs. O. A. Marshall, marched in orderly array across the street from the Brooks House and entered the hall. These were the Childs contingent. There was a pleasant ripple of sensation as they entered. The men who filled the hall made way for them, they were given seats in front, and the polling of their votes began and went on in a very matter-of-fact way. After the first, indeed, there was little to indicate that the women were not veterans at the polls. Before their votes had all been cast, Mrs. Hooker and Mrs. Jenne appeared with the Hines contingent of ten or twelve women in a body, whose votes were also cast in due time. Besides these women who voted in a body, the zealous women workers on both sides brought in a scattering of voters throughout the afternoon and evening, marching their several charges to the polls and 'voting' them in the most approved and business-like way."

There was very little challenging. No Democrats were challenged, because none offered to vote. Two or three Prohibitionists were challenged and their votes rejected because they had voted for Clinton B. Fisk for President. The result of the election was as follows: For Childs, 467; for Hines, 401. A majority of the men and also a majority of the women voted for Childs. When the result was announced, there was a tremendous cheer from the victorious side, and then the citizens dispersed to their several homes. The chairman of the caucus made a certified return of the result, and Col. Estey took it to Washington. A telegram to the Boston *Journal* says that the friends of Mr. Hines telegraphed asking a stay of proceedings until they could present their side of the case, but that the Vermont delegation telegraphed back that unless there was fraud in the management of the caucus they should abide by the decision and recommend the reappointment of Mr. Childs. That was ten days ago, since when there has been a rather ominous silence at Washington. But the New England Republican press, including the Boston *Journal* and the Rutland *Herald*, approve of the reappointment of Mr. Childs.

This case is in many respects unique, and is most gratifying and encouraging to the friends of civil-service reform. There are, perhaps, not many postmasters whose personal qualities would secure for them such a triumph over party spirit as Capt. Childs secured from the Republicans of Brattleboro. But here is a case where faithful performance of duty has been deemed by the witnesses of it the best possible title to office, and where the most strenuous efforts of one of the most skilful party managers in the country has been completely baffled and paralyzed, in his own camp, by a man of the opposite political faith who did nothing but attend to his official duties. One such example is more effective in the way of advancing the cause of reform than a thousand speeches in or out of Congress. It is unanswerable, like a victory on the field of arms.

THE PARNELL REPORT.

THE unfortunate judges who sat for a year on the London *Times* pamphlet called 'Parnellism and Crime,' have laid their report before Parliament. Most of our readers have probably forgotten by this time that what led to the formation of this extraordinary tribunal was not the disturbed state of Ireland, or the boycotting or intimidation practised in that country against landlords who evicted tenants or refused to lower rents, or against tenants who paid high rents or took farms from which other tenants had been evicted. All this was matter of what lawyers call common knowledge. Every newspaper reader was familiar with it. It was a story, in most of its features, about one hundred years old. Three or four Government commissions had investigated it and made substantially the same report, and it had, in the years 1883-'87, been abundantly illustrated in the trial of offenders in the courts all over Ireland.

What brought about the appointment of the Commission was the charge made by the *Times* in the above-mentioned pamphlet, which had an enormous sale and undoubtedly powerfully influenced English opinion on the Irish question, that certain Irish members of Parliament, about sixty in number, with Parnell at the head of them, had not only failed to condemn murder and outrage in Ireland, but had secretly instigated the murderers, and had supplied funds to enable them to carry out their designs and to escape after the commission of their crimes. It was this charge against members of the House which brought matters to a crisis. Parnell asked for a committee of the House to investigate these charges. For the granting of a committee under such circumstances there were plenty of precedents. In fact, it might be said to be the usage of the House to grant it. Such a committee has the great advantage over a court of law that it is not bound by the rules of evidence. It can summon anybody it pleases and make him tell all he knows. Parnell wanted it in order to find out where the *Times* got the letters connecting him with the Phœnix Park murders, which it attributed to him. He could hardly contest their authenticity, except by a naked denial, without knowing something of their history—that is, where the *Times* got them, and why it believed in their genuineness. The importance of this is plain at a glance. Every man who is confronted with a forged letter is entitled to know how it got into his accuser's hands.

The Government, when it refused the Committee of Inquiry, urged Parnell to bring an action against the *Times* in a court of law and offered to pay the expenses of the suit. But he declined this offer, on the ground that it would not secure him the testimony neces-

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sary to his defence, and that in the then state of English opinion, powerfully influenced as it must have been by the *Times* articles, he was very unlikely to get fair play from a London jury. This position was curiously sustained very shortly afterwards by an action brought by a certain O'Donnell against the *Times* for connecting him with the murders. The Attorney-General, who appeared for the *Times*, produced the forged letters in evidence, but informed the jury that under no circumstances would he reveal the manner in which they came into his client's possession; that sooner than do so he would submit to a non-suit. All the proof of authenticity he offered was the evidence of experts as to the signatures. This showed clearly what Parnell had to expect in a court of law, if he entered it with nothing but his denial to protect him against the letters.

The outcome of the wrangle was the appointment of the Commission—an absolute novelty both in jurisprudence and politics. Parnell and the Liberals protested against it, but it promised much better results than a jury trial. In the matter of the letters, however, he would not have fared much better before it than before an ordinary court, but for the accidental discovery, made by Patrick Egan in this country, of the resemblance between certain phrases in the forged letters and in letters he had himself written to Pigott. This gave the clue which led to Pigott's breakdown. But the *Times* experts stood ready in court to prove Parnell's signature before the Commission, as they had done in the O'Donnell trial, and the Attorney-General tried to introduce them before Pigott's examination.

The only really important part of the Judges' findings, therefore, is that relating to the *direct* participation of Irish members of Parliament in the promotion or commission of crime and outrage. On this they speak with authority. On the question whether outrages were *indirectly* due to the action or teaching of the Land League, or to the speeches of certain orators, or to the articles in certain newspapers, the opinion of judges is no better than that of other men of a similar grade of intelligence, and not nearly so good as that of men in political life, familiar with recent Irish history and with the social condition of the country.

We may say, therefore, that when the Commission finds that eight Irishmen, all members of Parliament except Davitt, joined the Land League "with the intention by its means to bring about the absolute independence of Ireland," they utter a political opinion which has no peculiar value. The same thing may be said of the second finding, that these persons entered into a conspiracy "to promote an agrarian agitation for the purpose of impoverishing and expelling from the country the Irish landlords." Their acquittal on the charge of "insincerity" in denouncing crimes in public, may be estimated in the same way. The finding that the Parnell letters were forged is, however, a judicial finding, and conclusive. So is the finding that the respondents circulated the *Irish World* and other papers, inciting to sedition and other crimes. It may be said in general terms that their conclusions about matters of fact are entitled to the utmost respect; their conclusions about motives, or tendencies, or remote consequences, to none except what is due to the utterances of men of high character in an unfamiliar field. They acquit Parnell absolutely of knowing of the organization of crime by Sheridan or Boyton; of intimacy with the leading Invincibles; of assisting Frank Byrne to escape from justice—in fact, of all the charges of any moment made against him in the *Times* pamphlet. It was these charges which caused all the trouble.

The *Times* meets the conclusions of the judges, in thoroughly journalistic fashion, by saying: "If on certain points we are held not to have established our statements, the general effect of what we have said remains unshaken." It would be difficult to get more absurdity into the same number of lines. The points on which it "failed to establish its statements" were the important ones which led to the inquiry, and the proposition that this has made no difference as to the "general effect" is profoundly fatuous.

THE NEW WINE IN THE OLD GERMAN BOTTLES.

THE Germans are just now receiving a new and valuable, though perhaps not very agreeable, lesson in politics. The Empire is an immense political machine, which has been in existence only twenty years, and the management of which has been thus far in the hands of one man of extraordinary ability. No experience acquired in the government of the German States before the foundation of the Empire was of much use in preparing any one to take charge of the new organization. Not only is it larger and more ponderous than any of the old governments, but it has brought into existence a new society, far busier, far more enterprising and active, and with far vaster and more complicated economic interests than anything known in Germany before. In fact, anybody who knew the old Prussia of 1850 would, if he had been out of the world since then, hardly recognize the new Prussia as the same State, and the same thing may be said of various other members of the Confederation. The difficulties and dangers of the Imperial Government have been concealed until lately by the prestige of Bismarck, and the complete acquiescence of the old Emperor in his policy. But it is now easy to see that, even before the Emperor's death, the new society which was produced by the French war was becoming something more than either or both of them was quite able to understand or manage. The Prussia in which both of them felt at home was the old military Prussia of Frederick the Great, in which there were nobles and peasants and an army, but in which there was no trouble about trade, or commerce, or manufactures, or colonization, no rich bourgeoisie, and no socialists, and no paupers who could not be kept quiet with a rattan.

Accordingly, even during the last years of the old monarch's life, the attempts of his Chancellor to grapple with the intricate social and economical problems of a modern State began to excite more or less uneasiness, which, however, was kept down by the confidence of the world in the character and attainments of the Emperor Frederick, whose accession to the throne was looked for every month during the ten years before his lamented death. He was a man of mature age, of great enlightenment, and perfectly conscious of the enormous changes in the relations of a monarch towards the community which had been wrought by the advance of science, the growth of trade, the increase of population and of facility of communication. Nothing, therefore, was feared, and much was hoped, from his inheriting the crown by his father's death. He was relied on to establish in Germany, on sure and lasting foundations, the only kind of monarchy which is possible in our modern commercial States, namely, a limited monarchy with a Ministry composed of well-known men practically, if not theoretically, responsible to Parliament and public opinion.

He has been succeeded by a young man thirty-one years of age, who has had no experience of any affairs except those of a military barrack. He would not, were he not born to the purple, be intrusted with the command of a regiment or the management of a bank, or get a professorship in a university, or more than a very subordinate place in the Government service, or be listened to with patience on any financial or economical question by any skilled audience. His claim to head a Ministry or to shape legislation would be treated with ridicule in England, and he could not in this country get a place of any responsibility in any large commercial house on any terms, or get a seat even in the Harrison Cabinet, without a very heavy contribution to the campaign funds.

There must therefore be something startling for the new Germans, who have to hold their own among states ruled by men of ripe age and long experience, to find this young soldier, who ought not to aspire to a post of any greater responsibility in the world than the command of a company of infantry, setting up as an economist, and, merely by the weight of his ill-considered and rash utterances on social questions, throwing the whole community into a ferment, and exciting among the poor and ignorant those extravagant expectations as to the possibilities of human society which will probably constitute, during the next fifty years, the greatest difficulty with which civilized government will have to deal. Probably nothing could bring out more clearly the radical defect of hereditary monarchy in the modern world. In the age when the chief business of every government was fighting, or getting ready to fight, youth and inexperience were hardly flaws in the sovereign's character. Young men are the best fighting men, and the less experience they have, the better material are they for military purposes. Consequently no great harm was done when an old king left the crown to a young heir. Nor does it much matter what the monarch's age and qualities may be

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in a constitutional monarchy like England, where the King is an ornamental person without serious duties. But a young Plantagenet or Tudor reigning over modern England, claiming the right to instruct bankers how to bank, merchants how to trade, professors how to teach, and editors how to write, and ministers how to legislate, would produce a revolution in a few months; and yet this, or something like this, is what the Germans of to-day have to put up with.

INCOME AND COSTS OF LIVING.

ONE of the most familiar of financial facts, and one which has often racked painfully the pocket nerve of householders, has been the steady decline for years of the rate of interest on first-class American investments. To show justly this decline during a series of years is not quite so easy as it seems. We meet at the outset the difficulty of selecting the period with the beginning of which the comparison of the present interest rate shall be made. We cannot, with fairness, choose for this purpose either the "panic year" of 1873 or any one of the few years immediately preceding, when new railroad enterprises were ballooning, speculation was rampant, over-confidence universal, and the business of the country inflated to a bubble which was so soon and so disastrously to burst. Probably the best period to take for a contrast with the present time is February of 1875. Then the great panic of 1873 was a year and a quarter in the past, and, though times were still hard, timid investors had begun to seek the safer kinds of securities, and, partly in consequence, dividends and interest began that steady decline in proportion to the amounts invested which has continued ever since.

What has that decline been in fifteen years? To indicate it approximately we have made below comparisons of the returns paid during February of 1875 and during the present month on ten kinds of "gilt-edged" securities. In the case of the bonds the returns have been based on the interest tables; and as gold stood at 114 fifteen years ago, the premium has been added then to the interest of two securities cited that pay in gold. In every case but one the computation is made on market prices of the securities as quoted at the New York Stock Exchange in February of 1875 and during the last few days:

Securities.	Interest on investment.	
	1875.	1890.
Union Pacific 1st mortgage	7.69	3.87
Central Pacific 1st mortgage	7.25	3.87
United States currency 6s	4.65	2.75
New York Central stock	7.92	4.24
N. Y. and New Haven R. R. stock	7.50	4.00
Morris and Essex R. R. stock	7.30	4.66
Harlem 1st mortgage 7s	6.25	3.80
C., B. and Q. 1st mortgage 7s	6.87	4.35
Lake Shore 1st mortgage 7s	7.00	4.00
Loans on Eastern realty	7.00	5.00
Average rate per cent.	6.94	4.05

The difference, it will be seen, in the average rate of income on the ten securities is 2.89 per cent., or a decline of about 41.6 per cent. in the income itself. Put a little more concretely, it may be stated thus: A man investing $100,000 in cash during February of 1875 in the list of securities named, and putting $10,000 in each, would have received from them (on the basis of the interest tables) an annual income of $6,940. Investing the same sum now, he obtains, by the tables, but $4,050—a decrease of $2,890, or about 41.6 per cent. of his former income, as has been stated. The reduction, of course, affects in greater or less degree everybody who has safely invested funds.

What ratio does this decrease of income bear to the fall in household costs of living during the same time? This is a far more intricate problem, involving many wide variations. In selecting the locality for the comparison, it would manifestly be irrational to choose a stagnant and remote country district, or, on the other hand, a large city, where the perturbations of rent alone might vitiate the figures. We have taken, therefore, as a mean between these two extremes a city of fair size, conservative in local temper, growing at a moderate pace, and situated at about two hours' journey from New York. In the table annexed, the rise or fall during the fifteen years of nineteen articles of cost of living to the householder is figured out in percentages, and marked with the plus or minus sign. Clothing is omitted, as it is not a branch of strictly household expense. The prices have been obtained with the utmost care from actual book accounts, often verified over and over again, and, in case of different grades of the same article, carefully averaged.

Taxes	+26.6	Pork	—14.2
Coal	—35.3	Poultry	00.0
Insurance	—14 3	Butter	—22.2
Gas	—50.0	Sugar	—33.0
Rents	00.0	Coffee	—22.2
House wages	+14.2	Potatoes	—35.0
Beef (roast)	—12.0	Flour	—35.3
Beef (sirloin)	—8.0	Fresh fish	—13.3
Mutton	—12.0	Oysters	—20.0
Ham	00.0		

If we average the fall of prices on the foregoing nineteen items, we shall find it is about 15 per cent. But, as the nineteen enter into the costs of living in greatly varying proportions, no such average can be made the basis of calculation. It is far more significant to observe that in only one case (50 per cent. reduction in gas) does the fall in price exceed the 41.6 per cent. decline in the income on investments—and as to gas we leave it to householders' experience whether the decrease in their bills is actually the 50 per cent. which we are forced to figure in the rate charged per thousand cubic feet. Taking nine of the most important branches of expense named—taxes, house wages, beef (2), coal, rents, flour, butter, and fish—the average decrease is but about 8½ per cent. The most extreme estimate will hardly place the real decline in cost of living on the nineteen items at more than 14 per cent., or about one-third of the 41.6 per cent. reduction in income.

Some causes of this great disparity between the fall of the interest rate and of the chief necessities of life will readily present themselves. In the first place, wages, salaries, the earnings of the professions, and probably the profits of thriving business, show slight reductions, if any, during the fifteen years, so that the economic influence of the immense classes represented by those industries or vocations is not exerted very actively towards a reduction of the prices of necessities. Secondly, there are the Trusts, whose work in augmenting prices can readily be traced in a number of the branches of expense that have been named. Finally, there can be little doubt of the growth, both absolute and relative, of a "surplus-income" class, saving money each year for investment, to whom good security is more important than a high rate, with its attendant dangers and vexations. Consequently, their demand forces the price of "gilt-edged" securities up and the rate of interest down. To this group belongs also the "trustee class," individual and corporative, whose large accumulations must by law seek conservative investments. Whether these three factors account fully for the great disparity between the fall of income and of cost of living may be left to the political economist, as well as the obscurer question whether the rate of interest is to turn upward or continue to run down. But, aside from these abstruser problems, the mere comparison of his reduced income with his much less reduced cost of living cannot fail to have a practical interest for every householder who owns stocks or bonds.

"THE FRUITS OF CIVILIZATION."

A LIFE-LONG friend of Count L. N. Tolstoi describes, for one of the St. Petersburg newspapers, some private theatricals at which he was present on the 30th of December (O. S.), at the Count's country-house, Yasnaya Polyana. The performance took place in the presence of about fifty guests. The comedy, entitled "The Fruits of Civilization," was furnished by Count Tolstoi; the performers were members of his family and friends. The author produced the comedy from his portfolio, where it has long lain; but in the course of the rehearsals, in which, as well as in mounting the piece, he took an active part, he made many changes, as the necessity for them became apparent. This four-act comedy is designed to ridicule spiritualism, and was carried out by twenty-seven actors. The stage scenery was prepared at home by the performers; a hairdresser from Tula had charge of the actors' make-up.

The first act opens in the vestibule of the town house of a wealthy and well-born believer in spiritualism, *Leonid Feodorovitch*, whose wife, *Anna Pavlovna*, a frivolous person, is terribly afraid of all sorts of infectious diseases, and is in constant consultation with the doctor. The daughter, *Betsy*, is a fashionable young person, engrossed in society. The son, *Vasili*, is an idle fellow who is constantly bent on borrowing money. The curtain rises on the first act. The chambermaid, *Tania*, a clever, handsome, and honest peasant girl, is courted by the lackey *Grigory*, whom she rejects, preferring a peasant named *Semyon*, who serves

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in the house as assistant to the butler. *Semyon* is a handsome, healthy young fellow. Various persons pass through the vestibule, including the doctor and a young fop, *Petristcheff*, a friend of the son of the house, who is paying court to *Betsy*. The fop and *Vasili* are dressed like fashion-plates, belong to the Bicycle Club, and are trying to borrow three hundred rubles in order that they may become members of the Sporting Club. The money will, of course, be furnished by *Vasili's* mother. Three peasants make their appearance—deputies sent by the village community on *Leonid's* Kursk estate, with a written contract, to ask that their master will sell them some land which is indispensable for them, since, to quote the words of the eldest of the peasants, "They have too little land; there is no place to let their cattle or even their poultry run." This peasant has in his boot four thousand rubles, which have been collected by the village community for the purchase of the land. One of the peasants is a relative of *Tania*, another of *Semyon*. The peasants request *Tania* and the pompous major domo and valet, *Feodor Ivanovitch*, to announce their arrival. Their explanations with the major domo are extremely amusing. *Leonid Feodorovitch* comes out to speak with the peasants, but, being a man of very undecided character, he says that he cannot make up his mind to sell the land. Being a spiritualist, he considers it indispensable to take counsel of the spirits. The peasants entreat him in every possible way, but *Leonid* defers the answer for a time. But his son talks a great deal about the money which the peasants have brought, and enters into conversation with them on the profits to be got from planting mint, in the fashion of ignorant city people. At this point, the mistress, on her way to make calls, enters the vestibule, flies into a terrible passion at the peasants having been admitted there, since heaven knows what disease they may have brought with them. Her husband would like to stop her, but cannot make up his mind to do so, which fact does not escape the observant peasants, who see that their master fears his wife.

The master finally refuses to sell the land, the spirits having probably advised him not to do so. The peasants are turned out, but are accorded asylum in the kitchen, thanks to *Tania* and *Feodor*, who promise to make an effort to get them the land; and the peasants, who have borne themselves in a hostile manner towards *Tania*, because of her dainty airs, become more friendly. At the end of the act, the crafty *Tania* begs that her master will listen to what she has to say. She tells him that *Semyon* is courting her, but that she is afraid! "Of what?" She has noticed supernatural manifestations in him; thus, when he begins to eat cabbage soup, the spoon moves of itself. Her master recognizes him as a medium and advises *Tania* not to be afraid, as he will test *Semyon's* powers.

Act second takes place in the kitchen, where the three peasants are drinking tea and chatting with the cook, who is telling them about the life led by her masters, their freaks, business, riding on bicycles, costumes, balls, food, and so forth, all this being interlarded with the witty comments of the peasants, and presenting a remarkably humorous picture of manners and customs. The preparation of cutlets for the poodle amazes the peasants. While they are drinking tea, the steward, *Semyon*, and another lackey enter the kitchen, and the conversation turns upon the land, as all of them belong by birth to the same class, and hope to return to the land. *Tania* also enters, and holds out hopes to them that they will get their land; whereupon even the surliest of them approves of her. At this same time the hypnotizer, *Spüller*, is holding a séance above stairs. All at once the fop *Petristcheff* rushes into the kitchen, just as the peasants have lain down to sleep. He must hide a key for *Spüller* to find. The best place he can hit upon is the boot of the peasant who has charge of the communal money, and who, of course, is terribly alarmed, thinking that the fop is after his money. This scene is very amusing. A few minutes later, all the ladies and gentlemen enter, accompanied by *Spüller* with bandaged eyes, who finds the key, while the peasant falls on his knees and swears that he did not steal it. Here ensues a very interesting explanation between the professor and *Sakhatoff*, a sceptical landed proprietor. *Petristcheff* pays court to *Betsy*, and the mistress of the house again flies into a passion because the peasants have been admitted to the kitchen, and orders them to be driven out. The thoroughly frightened peasants wish to go, but *Tania* takes them to the steward's quarters. The second act is very lively, and contains a mass of comical scenes and confrontations. The practical sense of the peasants and their views with regard to everything which their superiors do so *queerly*, are brought out in high relief.

Act third takes place in *Leonid Feodorovitch's* drawing-room. Preparations are in progress for a séance and the evocation of spirits. Prof. *Alexiei Vladimirovitch* is conversing with *Leonid*, and in consequence of the news that a celebrated medium will not be able to come, they decide to test the powers of the butler's assistant *Semyon*, whom *Leonid* has recognized as a medium. *Tania* and *Feodor* prepare everything for the séance, and *Tania* stretches threads all across the room, which no one notices. Then she smears *Semyon's* hands with phosphorus, and instructs him how to behave, how to feign sleep, how to bear himself during the whole séance and what to do. (She had seen such séances previously.) Having thus coached *Semyon*, *Tania* places the communal contract on the table, not far from the accessories of the séance—the guitar and harmonica—and conceals herself behind the divan, being dressed in a gown which resembles the colors of the wall hangings.

The guests assemble. One fat dame talks much of herself, her nerves, and her diseases. The professor explains the theory of spiritualism, and groups all manifestations under certain laws, like a science, and tries to find scientific answers to the pressing questions put by the ever-doubting *Sakhatoff*. *Leonid* gets angry, because everything is so plain and simple that there is no necessity for chattering and losing time. The lamps and candles are extinguished, the séance begins. Some one becomes terrified, the fat dame tries to leave the room, *Petristcheff* courts *Betsy* and talks with her, while *Tania*, raising the threads which she has stretched across the room, catches with them first one and then another of the guests, which frightens them, and leads *Leonid Feodorovitch* and the professor to the undoubted conclusion that the spirit of a certain monk Nikolai is present. Then, as a consequence of the contract being on the table, the question is asked: "Ought this document to be signed?" and a spirit replies, of course by knocks (produced by *Tania*), that the document must be signed. With *Tania's* assistance the guitar and harmonica play in the dark, and the guitar raps the master of the house on the head. *Semyon*, having been put to sleep by *Spüller*, indulges in various gesticulations; in short, the séance is perfectly successful, as may be imagined. *Leonid Feodorovitch* and the professor are thoroughly convinced and content. The contract is signed then and there. The act closes with a dispute between the professor and *Sakhatoff*, who still refuses to believe, holds a bit of the thread, which he has found, in his hand, and demands explanations on every point.

The fourth and last act takes place, like the first, in the vestibule. *Leonid Feodorovitch* has been having a reception day, and the guests are departing. The lackeys again begin to discuss their masters and mistresses. A princess and a countess, with their daughters, pass through the vestibule, and chatter fashionably. At length the mistress of the house enters, and the lacky, *Grigory*, complains that *Semyon* has beaten him. His mistress grows angry, but *Feodor* explains that it is on account of *Tania*, who is an honest girl and wishes to marry *Semyon*. *Grigory*, in his wrath, tells of *Tania's* capers during the séance. *Anna Pavlovna* immediately summons her husband, and informs him with malicious pleasure that he has been deceived. But neither *Leonid Feodorovitch* nor the professor, who hurries in, is in the least abashed by these pretended discoveries. The professor even declares that if there existed a desire on the part of *Tania* to cheat, it had certainly been inspired in her by the spirits, of course! And with this the play closes.

THE PATRIMONY OF THE POOR IN ITALY.

MANTUA, January 26, 1890.

THE new "project of law" on charitable institutions (*Opere Pie*), or, as they are now styled, public institutions of beneficence, presented in February, 1889, to the Chamber of Deputies, amended by a parliamentary committee, and discussed during the month of December, was passed by 198 yeas to 96 nays, and is now in the hands of the Senate, whose members, it is pretty well known, will not introduce any fundamental modifications. Ever since Italy became a nation, statesmen, legislators, philanthropists, and social economists have devoted their attention to these 22,000 institutions, to this property of over $400,000,000, yielding an income of $27,000,000, which, despite the addition of $10,000,000 spent annually by the communes and provinces in what is called "legal charity," seems to effect little or nothing for the relief of the poverty-stricken populations or for the diminution of their number. The reform of the *Opere Pie* was one of the first reforms undertaken by the governors and dictators of the liberated provinces in 1859, the spirit of the times inspiring the reformers to concentrate the utmost powers in the hands of the new Government. After the death of Cavour and the unification of the north and the southern kingdoms, Minghetti proposed and Rattazzi amended the bill which, sanctioned in August, 1862, is still the law of the land. The guardianship of all charitable institutions was declared to devolve on local governments; the commune, the province, the "region" were to become henceforward the proprietors. The autonomy of each institution was to be maintained, and, as far as possible, the will of the original testators to be respected. In the first volume of 'L'Italia Economica,' published in 1873, this law is lauded to the skies; but a diligent examination of its effects, made chiefly by the party now in power, then in opposition, proved that the law, defective in itself, was disregarded in nine cases out of ten, and that the patrimony of the poor was in many cases appropriated by the rich, often squandered and applied to purposes quite other than those designated by the pious or remorseful

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men and women of olden time, who bequeathed their substance from benevolent motives, or as atonement for their sins in the hope of making their peace with heaven.

Hence a radical reform of all charitable institutions was one of the pledges given by the Liberals while they were struggling to overthrow the Moderates; and to their credit be it said that the first Liberal Ministry (Premier Nicotera) set to work in practical earnest to redeem the pledge. On the 20th of April, 1876, Nicotera appointed a commission "to study and propose those reforms and ameliorations in the methods of public charity which, called for by the progress of civilization, should safeguard the patrimony of the poor, and promote an honest and economical application of the income." The members were all intelligent, and some were versed in the subject, such as Scotti and Pasquale Villari, then entirely devoted to social questions. Meanwhile Nicotera charged Caravaggio, Director-in-Chief of the Department of Charitable Institutions as it then existed, to draw up a project of law which he submitted to the Commissioners, and which was in reality the father of the present still more radical measure, aiming at a complete transformation of "public beneficence": alms-giving, promiscuous charity, to be abolished; only the old, the infirm, the sick, the demented, the deaf, the dumb, young orphans and children abandoned by their natural protectors, to be maintained by public charity as long—and only as long—as these latter were incapable of maintaining themselves; the surplus of lands and building funds to be "transformed"; institutions of credit, savings banks, and above all, industrial schools and colleges, to be set on foot so that the rising generation should learn to live by the sweat of their brow, and put by for their old age when they could work no more.

Naturally, this sweeping project made mincemeat of the original intentions of the testators, and paid not much more deference to their executors. The Commissioners found it too radical, and presented a less audacious yet very radical counter project. Nicotera laid his own bill before the House, but, as he resigned shortly after, it was never even reported on. Three years passed in constant recriminations on the part of the Radicals, and the press took up the matter, thoroughly exposing the shameful abuses, the scandalous malversation, of many of the charitable institutions, and in 1880 cautious Depretis presented a *leggina*—a little law, as he called it—for the correction of the most notorious abuses and the introduction of certain inevitable reforms, and meanwhile appointed a grand commission to make fresh inquiries, etc., etc.; this to prevent the Radicals from taking the bit between their teeth and returning to the propositions of Nicotera-Caravaggio. Unlike many of its predecessors, this Commission has done much good, steady, practical work. It has, as far as it has been able, "taken stock" of all existing property, and published eight volumes of results. The fifth of these volumes is very useful, containing the replies of the prefects, syndics, and local commissions to the several "catechisms" put to them by the Commissioners. The sixth contains the answers of the present administrators when they have vouchsafed any. The seventh contains the ministerial project of 1862; the eighth the report of the Director-General of Statistics (indefatigable Bodio) on the general results of the inquiry. Hence it will be perceived that Crispi and Crispi's commission found the greater part of the work done by their predecessors, the material ready to their hands, which, however, as they fully acknowledge their debt, does not diminish the merit of this most energetic of men and most audacious of premiers since Cavour in having drawn up a bill, mild in its form, but most radical in its substance, which could get itself passed within the year of its presentation. The Commission also deserves considerable praise for the modifications introduced with such tact and wisdom as to avoid violent opposition in Parliament, and obtain the adhesion, often reluctantly given, of the redoubtable Premier himself.

An analysis of the new law in all particulars is impossible, and not very profitable for foreign readers. Let us take its leading features. Is the will of the testator as to the aim of the charity to be absolutely respected? A glance at some of the titles of these will furnish the answer. Out of a list of 21,819 charitable institutions, exclusive of pawnshops, loan societies, etc., we have 2,368 exclusively dedicated to religious purposes, 3,416 to religion and charity. Other 4,213 come under the same category, whereas the general hospitals are but 1,291, special hospitals 62. In the most delicate manner the Commissioners inform the people and its representatives that "there exists no nation whose legislation does not recognize the right of the State to change the object of public charity, if the original recipient has ceased to exist or to need the boon, or if the social needs of the times render the legacy useless." Here follow examples of theories expressed and mutations effected by popes and princes, by the Church, and by many States. Then come precedents in Italy itself.

"We have never denied the right of the State, or deprived ourselves of the power of suppressing religious corporations and ecclesiastical foundations, and handing over their property to the National Treasury. Now, between suppressing certain bodies and sequestrating their possessions, and merely transferring the funds which have hitherto been devoted to one charity to another, there is a considerable difference."

This is not a happy line of argument to my mind, and of course the Papal party and many of the Moderates pierce this joint in the armor of the Commission. "State might means State right," say they. "Because you have made wholesale depredations, you use the great wrong done as a justification of the smaller wrong meditated." Better have been silent and said simply what follows: "When the necessity of suppressing, or reforming, or transforming a charitable institution is manifest, the parties interested, the local authorities and the Council of State, must be *heard*." I underline the word heard because the old law gave the Council of State the power of veto; now that august body is only asked for its "opinion."

The Commission has been very chary in enumerating the institutions which no longer respond to the wants of present times. The endowments of convents, monasteries, hermitages, and retreats, etc., come under this head. The subsidies to prisoners and condemned criminals are to be transferred to the fund for assisting the liberated prisoners until they have found work. Other legacies—for conservatories where neither education is imparted nor work enforced, retreats for pilgrims, funds left to pious orders—are to be separately considered, and the special aims to which they shall be devoted afresh decided on. The question of dowries to young girls gave rise to a warm discussion. Each separate legacy is to be revised. The legacies for religious purposes are also to be revised. If considered necessary to the wants of the population, they are to be retained; otherwise, devoted to other purposes, and in most cases the hospitals and the relief of the sick will be thus benefited. With regard to the charitable institutions of "heretics," great care has been taken to reserve their rights—an obviously just provision, as in most cases their poor are excluded from the benefit of purely Catholic charities. In 1887 it was ascertained that Jews had 141 charitable institutions, with a (gross) income of $80,300; the Protestants 12, income $14,000; the Greeks 4, income $11,000. Clearly, no idea of confiscation has been entertained by the Commission, but a cautious examination of all that now forms the patrimony of the poor is their object.

The next question is, Who are to be the future administrators? In order to show on whom are to devolve the separate or amalgamated administrations of charitable institutions, or public beneficence in general, it is necessary to refer to the new communal and provincial law under which the late general administrative elections were effected. This reform act nearly doubled the body of electors by giving the vote to all males of one and twenty who can read and write; the proof of their capacity so to do consisting merely in their making the demand for registration, and stating name, age, parentage, and domicile in the presence of a notary and three witnesses. By the same law the syndic, hitherto named "by the King," is, save in small communes, chosen by secret ballot by the executive or *giunta* previously elected by the communal counsellors. All electors are eligible save ecclesiastics, parish priests, civil servants whose office is to superintend the affairs of the commune, and their paid servants. The law, though in many points defective, leaving the municipalities still in too great dependence on the prefect (*i. e.*, on the political agent of the Government), is, on the whole, liberal, and the utmost pains have been taken to prevent bribery and corruption or the tampering with votes once recorded. The communal electors on the same day elect the provincial counsellors. As yet no great changes have been brought about, but it is not true that the reformed act has, "like mist, left things as they found them." The Italians, unlike Anglo-Saxon races, do not yet thoroughly appreciate the value of the right to vote for their representatives, political or administrative; and scarcely more than half the registered electors took the trouble to present themselves in the electoral halls and register their votes. This is a defect which time will mend. When the agricultural populations understand, as the working classes in the cities do already, that their special interests are affected by the presence of capable and honest administrators at the town hall, they will take pains to fix on these and to secure their election. Meanwhile the Government can do no more than accord their right to use or to neglect.

The question of the future administration of charitable institutions is materially affected by these considerations. For even as the entire male population who can read and write elect the counsellors of the town, so these in their turn elect the members of the Congregations of Charity, who henceforward are to become the administrators of the institutions of beneficence existing in the several communes. In the communal elections the rights of the minority are respected, as each elector can vote only for four-fifths of the total number of counsellors: if twenty are to be nominated, he can vote only for sixteen; but in the election of the members of the Congregations of Charity the vote is unlimited. The most serious discussion took place as to the admission of women as

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members. It should be noted that, during the discussion of this new communal law last July, Crispi brought all the weight of his influence in the House to exclude women from the urns, although Depretis and the commissions appointed during his administration proposed to extend to them the right to vote—a proposition warmly espoused by Peruzzi. Crispi's will prevailed. On the contrary, during the present discussion he proposed that women should not be excluded from the Congregations of Charity. Of the nine members of the Commission four at least, including the reporter, Edward Luchini, exhausted every argument in favor of their admission. It was proved that, among the benevolent testators and donors, women form the majority; that in modern times they figure largely as benefactors of the poor—in the infant schools, in the assistance of the condemned who have completed their term of imprisonment, etc.; it was urged that cases of real poverty come under the eyes of women daily, etc., etc. Three times the question was put to the vote. The first time (present eight members) women were excluded; the second (also present eight), they were admitted; the third time (present all the nine) they were finally excluded. The same fate befell parish priests and parish doctors. The former protest; the latter are, on the whole, only too thankful to have one weight less cast on their overburdened shoulders.

The question remaining to be solved is how many of the members elected will accept the onerous duties which are to be performed gratuitously; nor are the Congregations to have any paid servants under them in communes where the income of the charity does not exceed $4,000 annually. Nevertheless, they are to be responsible for their separate and collective administration. Only in special cases are they allowed to demand paid servants. In communes where it is found impossible to form Congregations, or where they fail in their duty, the Government will send a royal commissioner, to be paid by the commune. In communes of not more than 5,000 inhabitants the Congregations are composed of a president and four members; for 50,000 inhabitants, eight members; above this number, twelve members. All their deliberations are subject to the approval of the communal council and to that of the provincial *giunta* or executive. They are elected every four years, and a fourth of their number is to be renewed yearly. They may be reelected for a second term of four years, but not for a third.

The law, while professing to devolve on the communes and provinces the administration of charitable institutions, will reserve to the central Government its fair share of control. The Minister of the Interior retains the supreme direction. He, or his delegate, the prefect of the province, examines the estimates and the final budget. The efficacy of the new law can only be proved after a long trial. In Italy the sentiment of benevolence, the sense of duty on the part of those "who have" to help those "who have not," is on the increase. Between the years 1880 and 1887 643 new charitable institutions were founded; 6,715, already existing, enriched by donations and legacies of a total value of $20,000,000. In Lombardy the hospitals have received $5,000,000, the infant schools $2,000,000, the almshouses $2,000,000, orphan establishments nearly $3,000,000. In the application of the new law the utmost care will have to be taken in cases where the old foundations are to be devoted to fresh aims, otherwise wealthy people in making their wills may hesitate for fear of the "disobedience of posterity." In the present antagonism between the Church and the nation, the latter rejoices rather than otherwise when the State transfers to itself the power and the wealth monopolized by the former; but this is a two-edged sword, and as such the moderate adversaries regard it. In Italy, though many sweeping laws are passed, they are very slow in taking effect. We may be quite sure that no single charitable institution will be abolished or transformed without good substantial and demonstrable reasons. On the one hand, the old administrators, and even those who have unjustly profited by the asylum or doles, will have to be provided for. The communes, heavily taxed for the maintenance of the sick, the aged, the demented, and orphans, will keep a sharp watch for any windfalls that may transfer to them the maintenance of these sums hitherto devoted to "masses," retreats, hermitages, etc., etc. And when all is said and done, the fact that the new law gives (at least to the male population) the administrative vote, it will be the fault of "the masses" themselves if they fail to avail themselves of it.

The law, which met with small opposition in Parliament, is hotly censured by the moderate and of course the Catholic press. But one thing is certain: if it be possible to revise and reform all the charitable institutions in Italy, to introduce economy into the separate or amalgamated administrations, to devote the funds to the really poor and such as are unable to maintain themselves, to the rearing of a generation of workers, the present patrimony of the poor is sufficient for the purpose without any additional subsidies from the State, the provinces, or the communes. *Chi vivra vedrà.* J. W. M.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY'S WINTER EXHIBITION.

LONDON, January 29, 1890.

OF all the large winter exhibitions in London, that held at the Royal Academy is always one of the most interesting and important. Though, year after year, it does not vary in scope, but, as its title explains, is made up of work by the old masters, British as well as foreign, each winter its managers seek to show pictures of a certain artist or school which, either singly or collectively, have not before been exhibited to the British public. Apparently so inexhaustible are the private and royal galleries from which they borrow that this has so far been, and still is, possible. In the exhibition lately opened, Italian work, which usually occupies a conspicuous place, has been entirely dispensed with, and an effort made to gather together a representative collection of the great Spaniards; while in the British department, though there is the annual supply of Sir Joshuas, Romneys, and Gainsboroughs, interest centres in a fine series of drawings and models by Alfred Stevens.

It is difficult to really study Spanish art outside of Spain. In the national and public collections of England, Velasquez is far from being adequately represented, though in them one or two of his great portraits fortunately are to be found; Zurbaran would be sought for in vain, while the finest and most characteristic examples of Murillo are hidden away at Dulwich, where comparatively few visitors go, and the lesser masters are absolutely unknown. For this reason, the present endeavor, at the Royal Academy, to give the Spaniards prominence is particularly welcome, though it must be admitted it has not been altogether successful.

A large number of fine Velasquezes are owned in this country, but only two have found their way to Burlington House; the six other works by him, now hanging there, while they might be masterpieces for almost any other artist, do not show him at his best, when he was supreme—indeed, the genuineness of one at least can be questioned. But the two to which I refer are of the greatest value to the student, and one is of unique interest in the history of art. This is his famous "Venus and Cupid." Thanks to the Spanish Inquisition, it is almost the only study of the nude by a Spanish artist which the world possesses, and, as if to show what we have lost by the inquisitors' false ideals of purity, it is the finest the world has ever seen. Velasquez was in high favor at court, the demand for the picture came from no less a person than the Duke of Alba—reasons enough to account for the artist and his Venus escaping unharmed. But, however that may be, the fact which chiefly concerns us to-day is, that when he painted this picture, he made it a model for all time. His Venus, with her back turned, lies on a couch covered with rich white and gray drapery, her head slightly raised, and her face reflected in a mirror held by a plump little Cupid kneeling on one knee; a deep-red curtain hangs in the background. There is no attempt at cheap idealization, no attempt to make the Venus the heroine of a story, or to fill her with mythical meaning and surround her with unintelligible symbols. Fortunately there is no sign here of those gifts of the imagination which Sir Frederick Leighton, in his late lecture on Spanish art, found sadly wanting in Velasquez. To the painter, Venus was the type of female beauty; the business of the artist, to paint what he saw as well as he knew how. Therefore, with the brush of a master, he reproduced on his canvas a beautiful female model exactly as she lay before him, with the result that his Venus is a masterpiece in its fine drawing, its rendering of flesh, its superb technique; and perhaps what strikes one even more is the lovely harmony in the color and its exquisite appropriateness to the subject. His study of a beautiful woman is as rich as his dead warriors or stern statesmen are dark and sombre in tone. Striking, too, is the modernness in conception and execution: you could imagine a Manet, with the genius of Velasquez, painting just such a Venus to-day.

As great in its own way is the portrait of Mariana of Austria, the second Queen and cousin of Philip IV. That he should have made the woman inside such a costume as that in which she sat to him alive is its triumph. One has just now a chance of seeing at the Tudor Exhibition how a Zucchero, in rendering the elaborate dress of his royal patron, reduced the sovereign herself to a mere conventional figure. Not so with Velasquez, however: Mariana's black, silver-striped dress, over enormous hoops, her wide lace collar, her rows of pearls, the concentric rolls of her coiffure crowned with feathers, are all suggested with a marvellous cleverness which makes Zucchero's accuracy by contrast seem no better than the fidelity of a photograph; and yet the costume can easily be forgotten in looking at the curious face, with its full Austrian lips, its great round of rouge on both cheeks, and its very marked sullen expression, strange to find in a Queen who could laugh so heartily in the solemn, decorous Spanish court that the King at times reproved her for her levity.

If the Mariana were less masterly, probably the portrait of Adrian Pulido Pareja, with the fierce, swarthy face and the black dress relieved by its white sleeves and collar and the red cross of Santiago, would show to greater advantage. This is the Pulido, Admiral of the fleet of New Spain, whom Velasquez painted several times. Of one of these portraits the legend recorded

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of the work of every great artist is told: Philip came one day into Velasquez's studio, saw, as he supposed, the Admiral still lurking there in its darkest corner, reproved him for not being on the high seas, where he should long ago have been, and then found he was addressing only paint. The special picture of the story is still, I believe, in Spain, though there is another Pulido in England besides the one exhibited.

Of Don Balthazar Carlos, Prince of Asturias, there are four portraits, one as a child of three or four, two as a little fellow somewhat older, on a black pony, the background in both of these being filled with many figures. But even in a replica Velasquez did not repeat himself. The tone of the background is different in each —in one it is quiet and gray, in the other golden and glittering; the pose of the horse is slightly changed, the subordinate figures are far from being the same. In fact, these pictures show that, though one is but a replica of the other, he set himself in each a new problem; a lesser man would have been content to make a mere copy. The fourth portrait, by far the best, is of Don Carlos as a boy of ten or twelve, in a suit of armor most marvellously rendered, with splendid color in the reds of the gold-embroidered sash, of the chair, and of the curtain looped up to the right of the picture. In all four the face of the little fellow is already strongly characterized by the peculiar features of the house of Austria which Velasquez has made so familiar to us. A portrait of a lady, in a lemon-colored silk gown and a black lace mantilla, completes the list of his works.

Sir Frederick Leighton thinks that not Velasquez but Zurbaran was the most thoroughly representative Spanish artist, in him being gathered up all the various essential characteristics of his race—" its defiant temper, its dramatic bent, its indifference to beauty, its love of fact, its imaginative force, its gloomy fervor, its poetry, in fact, its prose." Fervor and dramatic effect at least are very evident in his five saints included in the present collection. Tall and commanding, each stands alone, his boldly handled drapery falling about him in long simple lines: St. Benedict with hand upraised in blessing; St. Jerome holding an open book, his lion at his feet; St. Thomas, St. Andrew, and St. Cyril reading. In all there is a grandeur of pose and dignity of conception that make them as impressive in their way as the kings and queens who look out from the canvases of Velasquez. But of imaginative force, in the usual acceptation of the term, there is little or none: Zurbaran treated his saints, who are really but so many Spanish monks and priests among his contemporaries, with the same realism with which Velasquez rendered his royal sitters, and herein lies their power.

Murillo is but poorly represented, a fact to be regretted. It is the fashion just now to depreciate him, and to dwell only upon his commonplaceness and false sentiment. Like every other great artist, he was unequal, and some of his work is of no special value. But he was a master of technique, and in his wonderful pictures of beggar boys, like those at Dulwich, he does not rank very far below Velasquez. No one ever saw more truly than he did the picturesqueness of low life, and no one ever succeeded in portraying it more picturesquely. Here, however, are only examples of his religious art: " The Good Shepherd," too well known to need description, and a very characteristic " Virgin and Child." The one remaining picture by a Spaniard is a portrait of Mariana of Austria by Del Mazo, who married the daughter of Velasquez. In all this Spanish work nothing is more marked than the careful restraint in color and the grave simplicity of composition; indeed, by comparison many of the near Sir Joshuas and Romneys seem garish and gaudy.

Special attention has been called to these pictures by grouping them together, as well as by the fact that the opportunities to see the work of the Spanish school are few. But no less important, technically, are the fine Rembrandts scattered through two galleries. Last year the special centre was reserved for Rembrandt, and a row of his incomparable portraits hung where the Velasquezes, Murillos, and Zurbarans now are. But those included in this year's exhibition would, if placed together in the same way, make a scarcely less fine, though superficially not so imposing, display. Among them are two of the portraits he seems never to have tired painting of himself—one, done when he was in his prime, showing the handsome face, with intelligent eyes and full, somewhat sensual lips; the dress he wears in this picture evidently was borrowed from his inexhaustible wardrobe of costumes in which he and Saskia were for ever attiring themselves, with the results he so often recorded on his canvas. On his head is a velvet cap, around which gleams a golden chain, while another chain, with a medal suspended from it, is about his neck. The color in the browns of the velvet coat, in the soft yellows of the old lace of the collar, and in the glowing flesh tints, is remarkably rich. Here, too, is one of his portraits of Lieven Willemsz van Coppenol, the scribe, his friend, whom he painted three times and etched twice. Coppenol, in a black cassock and cloak, with a black skull-cap on his scant gray hair, sits at a table, his face turned towards you; the white sheet of paper in front of him, and his white collar, breaking in very effectively upon the sombre hues of his dress and of the background. The face is full of character, the technique brilliant even for Rembrandt, and the whole composition marked by that simple dignity which the Dutchmen understood no less well than the Spaniards. The others show unknown men and women of the seventeenth century, whom, however, Rembrandt has made as real for us as the most conspicuous figures in the history of the age; and in all are those great qualities which one seldom looks for in vain in his portraits—the admirable expression of character, the careful modelling of the face, whether it be old and wrinkled, young or fair, the marvellous rendering of costume—of the wide lace ruffs, the curious women's caps, the fur-trimmed robes of his day—the rich, deep color, the vigorous drawing, the masterly handling.

I have not space here to speak of these in detail, nor indeed to do more than mention, among the other pictures of old men exhibited, two portraits by Van Dyck—one, the well-known Thomas Howard, Earl of Arundel, which has been engraved several times; the other, John, Count of Nassau Dillenburg; both of which, hanging as they do by the finest Rembrandts in the collection, strike one forcibly in their marvellous rendering of character. Examples of Jan Steen, Teniers, Cuyp, Gerard Terburg, Hobbema, and Van Ostade, and a curious series of portraits by Mytens and other Dutchmen, serving as fashion-plates of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, add immensely to this representation of the art of the Low Countries.

Of the British work, that of Alfred Stevens claims chief attention. It is true, there is much else of interest; to the student very great is the value of two fine sketches by Constable, of the " Pier at Brighton " and the " Vale of Stour," put in in great broad simple swipes; the latter (with graceful trees, which show very plainly where Corot got his ideas of tree-drawing, and filled with rich, silvery light) being the more completely carried out of the two. Valuable also, in its revelation of the artist's methods, is a monochrome sketch, by Gainsborough, of Mrs. Graham as " The Housemaid." A portrait of Robert Williams by Turner is notable because it is so seldom one sees a portrait by him, and because it is painted in a simple, direct, and straightforward fashion, so very different from his manner in the work which Ruskin has made popular. Of the Romneys, a portrait of Mrs. Stables and two of her daughters, Harriet and Louisa, has for the last few days been much talked about for the reason that it has never been exhibited before, its existence being all but forgotten. The lady who contributed it has, according to reports, already sold it for £8,000, its purchaser having disposed of it in his turn for £2,000 more. There is no doubt that Romney at his best is very fine, but just now he is beginning to be exploited by the dealers, and has become the fashion. The most important Sir Joshuas are his very beautiful " Hope Nursing Love" and his portrait of Sir William Chambers. But, despite the distinction of these single works, priority must be given to the collected models and drawings by Alfred Stevens.

This artist is not known as he should be. But the Academy, now that he is dead, is giving him that recognition it refused him during his lifetime. His reputation will probably grow greater with every year; but unfortunately this cannot mend the fact that, though he was one of England's leading sculptors and decorators, he was but too often without commissions. Perhaps he lived just too soon. The younger sculptors, who owe so much to him, already have achieved a success, officially endorsed by the Royal Academy, to which he never attained; designers of infinite inferiority now make for themselves a personal position which he never held; for while artists and craftsmen, in their yearly exhibition, now can claim all due credit for their own work, many of the designs of Stevens but added to the fame of Hoole & Robson, Minton, and other firms which bore away the honors of the exhibitions of 1851 and 1862. On his return from Italy, where he had remained nine years, though he was given an appointment in the Government School of Design at Somerset House, his chief decorative work was done for manufacturers. The present collection at the Academy shows very thoroughly the scope of his genius, and proves what a careful workman he was in his smallest as in his most important undertakings. There are designs for plates, candlesticks, vases, stoves, fire-dogs, all carried out with the true feeling for decoration, while as working drawings they are simply models. At the Arts and Crafts exhibitions, it seems as if bad drawing were considered by the exhibitors the first requisite of a decorator; but Stevens held other views, and the perfection of his designs, unequalled by those of any living English decorator, except perhaps Thornycroft, Gilbert, and Ford, his followers, was doubtless in a great measure the result of his care and accuracy as a draughtsman. For no less good are his life studies in red chalk, and his studies of drapery, and in this connection the excellence of his copies of old pictures, in which he had the sense to try to preserve their present appearance, is worth noting.

More important in one way, since they were his most ambitious works, are his models for the Wellington Monument at St. Paul's, and the proposed monument to commemorate the

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Exhibition of 1851. The latter was never set up—a fact much to be deplored, as it would have been a great ornament to Hyde Park. It is very fine in conception, with a statue of the Queen raised on a pedestal, around which is a beautiful bas-relief, and four emblematic female figures. But finer still is the Wellington Monument, so impressive as a whole, so beautiful in detail. In the model, fortunately, it can be seen in its entirety, for Stevens's design, owing to the usual inscrutable wisdom of ecclesiastical authorities, was not completely carried out; the strong, effective figure of Wellington on horseback, which he placed on the top, being omitted. There is another work by Stevens in St. Paul's. It was he who designed a decoration for the dome and substructure, and though this has not yet been carried into execution, it will not be very long before at least the four mosaics of the Prophets will decorate the spandrils. Perhaps his most familiar production is the little lion which sits up on the railings running round the British Museum; but of the thousands who yearly see it, how many have heard the name of Alfred Stevens? The Academy by this exhibition of his work will probably make it more widely known. But the neglect of so admirable an artist while he was alive is one of the many unpardonable mistakes with which that institution has to reproach itself.

The Grosvenor has been the last of the three large galleries to open, with its Sports and Arts Exhibition, of which, however, little need be said. Comparatively few sports are represented, royal rather than popular tastes being consulted; but few pictures have any great art value, Landseer dominating the show. There are one or two commonplace Rubenses and some alleged Dürers, but really, from the artistic standpoint, the show is of no importance.

N. N.

Correspondence.

A QUORUM OF THE HOUSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The House of Representatives assembled in the first session of the first Congress on April 6, 1789. On the next day the following rule was passed: "Every member who shall be in the House when the motion is put shall give his vote unless the House shall excuse him." This same rule, with slightly modified wording, has been passed by the House in most Congresses since then, and may be found in the rules of the Forty-fourth, Forty-sixth, and Fiftieth Congresses.

A law without a penalty is of little avail, but it is a matter of surprise that, in Congress after Congress, members have seen fit to continue a rule that no one feels bound to obey, and which has been openly and defiantly broken by every filibustering member of either party. If Representatives had been ready to obey their own rules, the precedents for filibustering would have been wanting to the present Congress, and no question would ever have been raised as to what constitutes a quorum.

The House has certainly supposed in the past that some one had the means of knowing if members were present, whether answering to the roll-call or not, for the House of the Thirty-eighth Congress, on June 8, 1864, passed the following rule:

"The names of members not voting on any call of the ayes and noes shall be recorded in the journal immediately after those voting in the affirmative and negative, and the same record shall be made in the *Congressional Globe*."

This rule was adopted by subsequent Houses up to the Forty-fifth Congress at least, and the *Globe* gives, with nearly every list of members voting "by aye and no," the list of members not voting. The fear shown by a certain member of Congress that he should be held up to his constituents as neglecting his duty if the journal declared him not voting, does not seem at this earlier time to have been prevalent.

There certainly may be an honest difference of opinion as to the interpretation of the Constitution of the United States in the clause with reference to a quorum, though if the question had never been raised in practice, it seems that the intent might be clear in theory, and that, too, in opposition to the practice heretofore existing. The Constitution on this matter says as follows:

"A majority of each [house] shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide."

By a rule of the House, passed first April 17, 1789, and continued by succeeding Houses, fifteen members, including the Speaker, if there is one, may compel the attendance of absent members, officers appointed by the Sergeant-at-Arms being sent in search of them, to take them wherever found and bring them to the House. These members so compelled to appear are evidently to help to constitute a quorum, and for no other purpose could they be so arrested. When they are brought within the chamber in sufficient numbers to make the required majority of members elected, a quorum is present according to the intent of the Constitution, or else the power given to the House to compel attendance is of no avail and utterly worthless. A quorum being in the House under compulsion, there can be no possible doubt of the actual presence of the parties arrested, and business may be transacted whether such parties sit in sullen silence or take part in the deliberations. Suppose the ayes and noes are called on any question and the arrested members refuse to vote; such refusal cannot be sufficient to show the absence of a quorum against positive evidence that the members have been brought in by force and are still detained by the officials of the House under the authority of the House. The Constitution gives to each House authority to compel attendance, and surely could not intend that the absentees, when brought in, should yet have it in their power to defy the House and render useless the action permitted by law.

This is a view of this question that in no way rests on late decisions of the Speaker of the House, but has been long held. Certainly all precedent is on the other side, but it may be a precedent that has grown up in spite of the Constitution rather than under it, just as the refusal or neglect to vote is entirely opposed to the rule the House has made for itself.

Whatever side one may be disposed to take upon the question of a quorum, the scenes enacted in the House of Representatives during the present session are not at all such as to rouse the pride of the intelligent voters of the country, whatever their party affiliations, and must cause gloomy forebodings as to the future of republican institutions.

J. D. Crawford.

Champaign, Ill., February 10, 1890.

THE SALTONSTALL CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial on "The Saltonstall Case," in No. 1285, while justly censuring the President for his improper removal of an efficient and faithful official, you do not touch upon another, but equally important, phase of civil-service reform—I mean that which should have governed the choice of Mr. Saltonstall's successor. Mr. John M. Fiske (of whose political opinions I know nothing) has been the *real* Collector at this port for several terms, and is undoubtedly better qualified in every way for the Collectorship than any other man in New England. If the promotion of Mr. Pearson in the New York Post-office was a fair exemplification of the proper rule in regard to appointments, the promotion of Mr. Fiske would have been equally, if not more, commendable.

Stephen H. Tyng.

Boston, February 14, 1890.

ENGLAND UNDER PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "Tariff-Reformer" effectively quoted Thomas Carlyle against the assertion of Mr. Blaine, in the *North American Review*, that "Great Britain had reason to feel supremely content" "during the last thirty years of her protective system, and especially during the twenty years from 1826 to 1846." Carlyle is by no means the only great writer who can be quoted to the like purpose. For example, in his article on Ricardo, in the 'Economic Studies,' Walter Bagehot, who may be commended to Republicans as a very successful "student of markets," says:

"For the thirty years succeeding the peace of 1815, England was always uncomfortable: trade was bad, employment scarce, and all our industry depressed, fluctuating, and out of heart. So great is the change of times that what we now call 'bad trade' would then have seemed very good trade, and what we now call 'good trade' would have been too good to be thought of—would have been deemed an inconceivable Elysian and Utopian dream."

Bagehot accounts by the condition of England during that time for the great interest then taken in political economy. When times are good, "political economy ceases to have the same popular interest."

Fielding's Jonathan Wild was not the only "great" man to whom truth has been remorselessly inconvenient.

John C. Cozens.

Amsterdam, N. Y., February 10, 1890.

THE PHOTOGRAPH NUISANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The photographer of the present day, not content with the money that he receives in the ordinary course of business from his employers, frequently sells their photographs and negatives, chiefly for advertising uses, to outsiders. Not only this; often, by means of the detective camera, he photographs people entirely ignorant of his action, at such times and under such circumstances as he pleases. It is not too much to say that all this adds a new horror to life. Those who suffer directly are usually young and lovely women. But their relatives and friends suffer deeply, if indirectly. Indeed, the public too may be said to suffer, if from no other cause, from the fear of seeing the photographs of their wives, daughters, or sisters treated in like manner.

A couple of instances in point have recently come to my knowledge. Both are instances of young, lovely, modest, and unmarried women. One—pardon the phrase—moves in the best society of New York; the other in that of Boston. The former may to-day find her photograph and a description of herself—the attraction of a large advertising placard—hung certainly in one and probably in many of the most glaringly conspicuous places in New York. The other has fortunately never known

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that her photograph was accidentally found adorning the rooms of a man recently arrested in Boston on a criminal charge, nor that her photograph was spoken of by him in such terms as would make the blood of any one having a spark of chivalry boil within him.

I think that it needs no argument, but simply a plain statement of facts, to prove incontestably that the whole system is an intolerable outrage, and should be immediately suppressed; and I feel confident that the public would be wholly and earnestly in sympathy with this position should they once give the matter a moment's consideration. Surely, no self-respecting man could feel other than wrathful at the sight, for instance, of a face that is dear to him wedded to the figure of a ballet-girl, and plastered thus on the covering of a bunch of cigarettes. Yet any one of us may have this happen to him. If this statement is doubted, it can easily be verified by a glance through the windows of a few tobacco-shops of the lower grade.

I am not prepared to frame offhand a statute covering all cases, but I certainly believe that a statute should be forthwith passed making every one liable, criminally and in a heavy penalty, who either sells a photograph or photograph-plate without the consent of the sitter; or publishes a photograph, without such consent, for advertising purposes. Such a statute would give the many the privacy desired, while at the same time it would permit the few who desire, for professional or other reasons, publicity, to effect that wish by special contract with photographers.

But, apart from this proposed remedy by statute, is there none at common law? I am told that eminent lawyers deny that a remedy exists. On the contrary, I believe that one does exist, and I base my belief on the legal principle applicable to the ordinary letter of correspondence. Practically every man thinks that he owns absolutely the letters that he receives, yet he is entirely mistaken. In law the writer gives the receiver the paper, ink, and other tangible parts of the letter, the right to read the letter, and the right to use the knowledge thus obtained in accordance with the purposes for which the communication is made; but he gives him nothing beyond this. In conformity with this legal principle, a recipient of letters who is on the point of publishing them in book form may be enjoined at the instance of the writer (Drone on Copyright, 127-137). So, also, a telegraph company is undoubtedly under a legal obligation to abstain from using or disclosing the messages which it contracts to communicate (Gray on Communication by Telegraph, §25). Now this same legal principle is, to my mind, applicable to portrait plates in the hands of a photographer, and *a fortiori* to photographs struck from those plates for purposes of sale to outsiders.

In applying this principle here, it is important to remember that these plates are simply a necessary incident in the process of photography. In merely sitting for his photograph, an individual impliedly, if not expressly, gives the photographer the right to use the ordinary process in taking his photograph. But he gives him nothing more than this. He does not give, nor has he the slightest intention of giving, the objectionable rights under consideration. The photographer owns the negative, but only in the restricted sense in which a telegraph company owns the message which it contracts to communicate—a message written usually on the blank form and with the ink provided by the company. Under such circumstances, if a photographer sells without consent either negative or photograph, he is liable to the sitter for a breach of implied contract; or if he is upon the point of making such sale, he may be enjoined, at the instance of the sitter, for committing a breach. M. G.

"A SIDE LIGHT ON GREEK ART."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Century Magazine* for February there is an article on some newly discovered teracottas, which are supposed by the writer to throw a "side light on Greek art," and which are recommended for purchase by the American public. It cannot be too widely known that all these groups of several figures purporting to be antique figurines from Asia Minor or Greece are pronounced by the most authoritative experts to be forgeries; and I for one, having seen several of them, and knowing something of the tricks of the trade in antiquities, have no hesitation in endorsing this judgment. It is, indeed, perfectly well known where the forgeries came from. I saw one large group which was seized in the Custom-house at Peiræus; it had been imported from Smyrna, and had been broken into twenty pieces to carry out the deception better. Although, as only in transit, it could not have been seized by the Greek law if it had been reclaimed by the owner, it never was reclaimed, because the shipper wished to conceal his identity.

The trade in counterfeit figurines is so large and so prosperous that the half of those which are sold to-day, even of the single figures known as Tanagra or Myrina, or in general as Smyrna, are forgeries. A celebrated collection sold in Berlin not long since, and which was made up in Athens early in the fever for collecting them, was there well known to be about half forgeries. The forgers get their clay from the same localities which furnished that for the ancient artists, and, having the models for style before them in original work, they succeed in catching the spirit of it so well that very few experts, even in Athens, can readily detect the forgery. Often a head of original workmanship is made out as an original figure by the addition of a new body; sometimes the original is copied so closely that one can see where it was copied from, but in general the single-figure forgeries are only imitated in style. The large groups are, however, daring fabrications, and, as far as one can judge from the character of the design and without seeing the object itself, I am disposed to pronounce all the groups given as illustrations in the *Century* article to be forgeries. A prominent dealer in Athens last year sold to one of the Rothschilds some of these groups, and, the purchaser showing them in precaution to the most eminent expert in Athens, they were at once and absolutely dismissed as forgeries, and the money was returned without demur or debate. I have myself known in Athens one of the sculptors who are employed in these fabrications, an able Italian workman in poor circumstances, but quite capable of doing original work if anybody had wanted it, in default of which he was obliged to work for a few francs a day in the fabrication of these figurines.

The trade in these terracotta statuettes is now so extensive and so bold in its fictions that no one should buy one except on the authority of a first-rate expert. Some forgeries are patent to a half-trained eye, but others are so good that there are very few even among the dealers who can detect them. The worst thing about these large groups is that they create a form of art which the genuine Greek art never took, and so throw a false "light on Greek art."—Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, February 5, 1890.

LUCKY YEARS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The year '89 seems to be a lucky year for constitutional government. In 1689 the English Bill of Rights was passed by Parliament; in 1789 the Constitution of the United States of America went into effect, and the French States-General met which afterwards made France a constitutional monarchy; in 1889 the Japanese Constitution was promulgated, and Brazil peacefully changed from an empire to a republic. "What's in a" year?

Clem.

STEAMER DECOYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The great steamship lines have begun to send round their seductive decoys. These I toss at once into the waste-basket, waiting (like many others, I believe) for one with these two headings conspicuously displayed:

☞ Steamers of this line are fitted out with the latest and best appliances for the use of oil on water.

☞ This is the only company that furnishes steamer chairs gratuitously.

Very respectfully yours, G. M. L.

Cambridge, February 17, 1890.

Notes.

The uniform texts of the writings of the Fathers of the Republic which the Messrs. Putnam have undertaken, and carried out in the case of Hamilton, Franklin, and Washington, they will continue with the 'Writings of John Jay,' edited by Prof. Henry P. Johnston of the College of New York, who in respect of competence will not suffer by comparison with any of his predecessors. The work will be completed in four volumes, and will contain much unpublished matter, together with important letters from his contemporaries. Following this issue, the Writings of Jefferson will be brought out in some nine volumes.

The Historical Printing Club, 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., invites subscriptions to the following historical works edited by Worthington Chauncey Ford, viz., 'Trade Between Great Britain and the United States,' a "suppressed" report made by the Privy Council to the King in 1791; 'Letters of Joseph Jones, 1777–1778,' a member of the Continental Congress from Virginia; 'Washington as an Employer and Importer of Labor'; 'The Spurious Letters attributed to Washington'; and 'The Duché–Washington Letters,' containing the original of Parson Duché's letter to Gen. Washington urging him to betray the Continental cause and negotiate for peace at the head of his army. These pamphlets are uniform, small quarto, and the edition is limited in the case of the first two to 250, of the last three to 500 copies.

Dodd, Mead & Co. promise a new edition of Prof. J. D. Dana's 'Corals and Coral Islands, and a new work from the same authority on 'Characteristics of Volcanoes,' with contributions of facts and principles from the Hawaiian Islands. This house has taken over the publication of Mr. James Schouler's 'History of the United States under the Constitution,' which lacks only a fifth volume of being complete.

'Stanley's Emin Pasha Expedition,' by A. J.

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Wauters; 'Recollections,' by Geo. W. Childs; 'Historic Note-Book,' by the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer; and 'How to Remember History: a Method of Memorizing Dates,' by Virginia Conser Shaffer, are in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

'Studies in Literature and Style,' by Prof. T. W. Hunt of Princeton, will shortly be published by A. C. Armstrong & Son.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready 'To Europe on a Stretcher,' by Mrs. Clarkson Potter; 'The Historical Christ, the Moral Power of History,' by the Rev. David H. Geer; and 'Five Sermons,' by Bishop Whipple of Minnesota.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. have in press, for immediate publication, under an arrangement with the English publishers and author, 'Jesus the Messiah,' an abridged edition of the 'Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah,' by the Rev. Alfred Edersheim, D.D.; and a 'History of the Westminster Assembly of Divines,' by Prof. Wm. M. Hetherington, D.D., edited by Robert Williamson, D.D., with notes and facsimiles of title-pages of the original editions of the Confession of Faith, the Catechisms, Larger and Shorter, and the Directory of Church Government and Ordination of Ministers.

In April, Ginn & Co. will issue 'Elements of Structural and Systematic Botany,' a textbook by Prof. Douglas Houghton Campbell of the Indiana University.

Wm. M. Goldthwaite, No. 107 Nassau Street, has bought out the business of Hyde & Co., publishers of maps, atlases, and road charts.

The Montclair (N. J.) Photo-Gravure Publishing Company have acquired the remainder edition of Mr. W. I. Lincoln Adams's 'Montclair: a Series of Photo-Gravures' — memorials of a region abounding in rural views of great beauty and occasional wide prospects.

Mr. Wm. G. Kingsland will shortly publish, through J. W. Jarvis & Son, London, a revised edition of his 'Robert Browning, Chief Poet of the Age,' with a photogravure portrait.

Mr. Andrew Lang is about to follow up his 'Letters to Dead Authors' with a second attempt in epistolary parody. In 'Old Friends' (to be published here shortly by Longmans, Green & Co.) he sets forth the correspondence which might have taken place between characters in fiction who lived at the same time—M. Lecoq, for example, writing to Mr. Inspector Bucket, and Mr. Trollope's Mrs. Proudie describing to a friend how the Bishop was taken in by a self-styled Lady Crawley, formerly Miss Becky Sharp. Among these letters is one from the very British hero of Ouida's 'Under Two Flags,' narrating his surprising rescue of Miss Daisy Miller.

The *Writer* (Boston) has in hand the compilation of a 'Directory of American Writers, Editors, and Publishers,' to be published at the earliest possible day. From the current number of this periodical we learn that a new weekly journal, the *Cambridge Review*, is projected, somewhat upon the lines of the old *Harvard Register*.

It cannot be too widely known that the second (revised) edition of Mr. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' is now deliverable by Macmillan & Co. "Sixteenth thousand," one reads upon the title-page. Marks of the indefatigable author's retouching are everywhere visible, including one *lacuna* — the chapter on the Tweed Ring now in litigation through the desperate endeavors of ex-Mayor Hall to rehabilitate in London a character hopelessly damaged in New York. Some purchasers may on this account hesitate between the second and the first edition, which, moreover, will always be highly prized as the first (not rough) draft of a work destined to maintain a living hold on our institutions of learning, and to shape the political thinking of the rising generation.

'Problems in American Society,' by Joseph Henry Crooker (Boston: George H. Ellis), is a volume of very pleasantly written essays upon such themes as the life of the student, scientific charity, religious and secular education, and the liquor traffic. The account of the origin of the science of charity, so to speak, in Hamburg, and its subsequent development there, deserves general study, and the same may be said of the author's remarks upon the worthlessness of all machinery for the relief of the poor that is not animated by human devotion. Much good sense is displayed in the discussion of the evil of intemperance, the futility of trying to suppress it merely by legislation directed against the dealers in liquor being emphasized. While the essays are in the main of a character to be more effective in oral delivery, they will be acceptable to many in their present form.

The circumstance that 'Money,' by James Platt, F.S.S., is reprinted from the nineteenth English edition, is sufficient proof that it is not a technical treatise. It is, however, a very sensibly written one, although it is extremely rambling and diffuse. So far as it deals with principles, it follows in the main the safe guidance of Bagehot's 'Lombard Street,' but it is obvious that the author has been actively engaged in business on a large scale, and the book is full of sound advice and maxims of practical wisdom. These features have probably caused the large circulation of the book in England, but there is much in it that is not applicable to our business conditions. The author misunderstands, or at all events states so that others will misunderstand, the legal-tender decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. The "elaborate judgment" referred to by him, holding that debts contracted before the greenbacks were issued were payable in dollars of the same kind as those borrowed, was unfortunately not the judgment of the court, but a dissenting opinion. The book is republished here, under arrangement with the author, by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'American Whist Illustrated' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the title Mr. G. W. Pettes has given to the new volume in which he has combined the substance of his 'American Whist' and 'Whist Universal,' of which the former has had ten editions since 1880, and the latter four since 1887. Without accepting all the *obiter dicta* of Mr. Pettes, we may say unhesitatingly that this is the best and most logical treatise on the most advanced form of whist now obtainable. The moment the principle of the so-called "American leads" is accepted (and "Cavendish" was frank in acknowledging the great value of Mr. Trist's improvement), there is no reason why it should not be pushed to its logical conclusion, as Mr. Pettes does here in his chapter on the "New Play" (pp. 125–133). Especially to be noted is the dialogue reported by Mr. Trist (p. 127). Among the most valuable features in 'American Whist Illustrated' are the illustrative hands figured on the final seventy pages of the book. The beginner can learn not a little from the first four games, for example, in all of which the same hands are held, all four of the players being ordinary in the first game and skilful in the last, while in the other two a pair of skilful players are matched against a pair of ordinary players, at first with the better cards and then with the worse.

In our recent article on Ibsen and his translators, we had a good word for Eleanor Marx-Aveling's version of 'The Lady from the Sea' (London: T. Fisher Unwin). We might have added that the volume has the elegant appearance of the Cameo Series to which it belongs, and a characteristic portrait of the dramatist (much less well printed than the letterpress). We may remark here that, even in this era of "series," one devoted wholly to poetry indicates not a little courage; but this is what Mr. Unwin has attempted in the Cameo Series. Mr. Pennell has made a cover stamp for it, and will add illustrations if need be. It is intended to include reprints and translations as well as original verse. The volumes are seemly and shapely, with a back of vegetable parchment and a neat green-paper side. As yet, the series contains but four books, 'The Lady from the Sea,' the late Amy Levy's 'London Plane-Tree, and Other Verse,' Mr. William Watson's 'Wordsworth's Grave, and Other Poems,' Mr. T. W. Rhys-Davids's new edition of Sir William Jones's version of Kalidasa's 'Sakuntala.'

Georg Brandes's critical estimate of Ibsen is well known, and Valfrid Vesenius, who in 1879 published at Helsingfors a like critique, followed it up in 1882 with 'Henrik Ibsen, ett Skaldeporträtt' (Stockholm). But perhaps the fullest information concerning the Norwegian dramatist is contained in Henrik Jäger's 'Henrik Ibsen 1828–1888' (Copenhagen, 1888). This work has been translated into German by Heinrich Zschalig (Dresden and Leipzig, 1890), with additions and occasional annotations; the additions consisting chiefly of Halvorsen's account of a composition read by Ibsen in school at the age of fourteen, a speech made by the poet, September 10, 1874, in response to a "banner procession" of the students of Christiania, and an analysis of "The Lady of the Sea," which was not published until after the Danish original was in type. The account of Ibsen's early life and struggles for existence and recognition is interesting; but the book is likely to be found unsatisfactory to readers not already acquainted with Ibsen's works. The analyses of the dramas presuppose that the reader is familiar with the plots, and are quite unintelligible to those who are not. The arrangement is poor and there is no index. The translation is a slovenly piece of work, and the number of typographical errors is largely in excess of what is allowable, to say nothing of blunders for which neither printer's devil nor proof-reader can be held responsible. Ibsen's career furnishes ample material for a fascinating biography if only properly treated.

Two theatrical annuals demand a word of record, the '*New York Clipper* Annual for 1890,' which contains a theatrical chronology and obituary for 1889; and the '*Era* Almanack,' which is the twenty-third of the series, and contains the usual records and also a set of rather dull answers (in facsimile of the handwriting of the actors interrogated) to questions as to the favorite play of each, the most extraordinary blunder heard on the stage, etc.

The year whose physiognomy is graphically fixed in the thirty-third volume of *Harper's Weekly* can hardly be called dull. One of the earliest cartoons is of a White House reception while President Cleveland was still in office, and after that comes the series of events relating to the inauguration of his successor, the centennial commemoration in New York., etc., etc. The two congresses—the International Maritime and the Pan-American—the Johnstown disaster, and the revolution in Brazil are the other significant time-marks. The Paris Exposition receives but little notice. In this city we are reminded that in 1889 "Rheingold" was first put upon the operatic stage, and that a hopeful beginning was made of the removal of telegraph poles; but also that Tammany's

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fresh hold upon the government was clearly revealed. The dead whose departure is recorded in portraiture embrace Ericsson, John Bright, Henry G. Pearson, Jefferson Davis, and Robert Browning. Mr. Howells's 'A Hazard of New Fortunes' is the chief fiction of the volume. The supplements deal as usual with American cities, chiefly Western and Far Western, but also with many miscellaneous topics—from ferry-boats to men-of-war, from stained glass to roads—concerning which specialists convey no little useful information.

For *Harper's Bazar* last year the special incident was the death of its editor, Miss Booth. Her portrait, an early one, is given in the bound volume before us. The fashions have of course a large share of the pictorial space, but considerable cognizance is taken of the Paris Salon and the English galleries, a little of the Exposition, a little of the Centennial of the Republic. Besides the French and English paintings thus reproduced, there are a noticeable number of designs by American women, as is proper. The British cathedrals are also numerously depicted. The leading serial in fiction is William Black's 'Prince Fortunatus.' Mr. T. W. Higginson continues his unflagging series of papers on "Women and Men."

Russia may be called the leading topic of Vols. 78 and 79 of *Harper's Monthly*. Theodore Child has no fewer than four papers on that country, Clarence Cook describes Russian bronzes, and Count Melchior de Vogüé deals with Russian social aspects—all with aid of profuse illustrations. Norway is treated of by Björnson. Benjamin Constant records a painter's impressions of Tangier and Morocco. C. D. Warner writes of Canada. Lockyer and Prof. Darwin contribute astronomical papers. Dr. Waldstein's long appreciation of Ruskin is accompanied by a portrait which is one of the few notable ones of the two volumes. Daguerre's is another, being from a daguerreotype; but one feels that his centenary was inadequately celebrated here and elsewhere in our literary and scientific organs. Miss Woolson's 'Jupiter Lights' is the continued story of the year.

The twelfth volume (in the new series) of the *Critic* covers the half year July–December, 1889. The disappearance of the leading article is chiefly to be remarked. "Literature" is now the standing heading at once for the book reviews and for the general complexion of this useful weekly.

Shakespeariana has enlarged its form with the new year and turned into an illustrated quarterly magazine, remaining under the editorial charge of the New York Shakspere Society, and being published by Leonard Scott & Co., 29 Park Row. The January number is quite given over to memorials of the late Halliwell-Phillipps, whose portrait is accompanied by views of Hollingbury Copse within and without.

The mutable *American Naturalist* has paused in its regular appearance, pending a change of publishers. The number for September, 1889, bears the imprint of Ferris Bros., Philadelphia, and is, typographically, a marked improvement on the old style.

With the new year the monthly *Revue Française* is revived, under the editorship of M. L. Boisse (New York: W. R. Jenkins; Boston: Carl Schoenhof). It will be original and eclectic. It is printed in clear type, on a broad page.

The *New England Notes and Queries*, just started by R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I., is an attempt to combine antiquarian lore with genealogical interchange. The contents of the January number are interesting, but are very poorly displayed for want of taste in the typesetting.

Mr. Brander Matthews's effective writings on copyright in the magazines have just been reprinted, with the author's revision, by the American Copyright League, under the titles, 'American Authors and British Pirates' and 'Cheap Books and Good Books.'

Two recent products of the topographical survey of Massachusetts deserve mention. The first is the general map of the State, on the scale of about four miles to an inch, with contours for every hundred feet, of which a proof copy has lately been issued by the Geological Survey. It exhibits the larger topographic features of the State with great clearness; the truly plateau character of the central and western portions standing out distinctly in contrast with the broad valleys of the Connecticut and of Berkshire. The second map is on a scale of a mile to an inch, with contours every twenty feet, for a district around Boston. This is published by the Appalachian Mountain Club, and may be obtained from their sales agents, W. B. Clarke & Co., 340 Washington Street, Boston. It will be of great value in local excursions and as the basis for scientific studies of various kinds. It would serve admirably to accompany a "half-holiday guide" to the neighborhood of Boston, for which there should be a good general sale.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, No. 712 Arch Street, Philadelphia, worthily commemorates the late George H. Boker by a fine half-life-size photographic panel portrait in his best manner. The retouching has spared the lines of character, and the result is a thoroughly acceptable likeness.

—The Rembrandt Club of Brooklyn has published a large quarto pamphlet containing a summary of its proceedings from its organization in 1880 until the summer of 1889, a list of its past and present members, catalogues of its loan exhibitions, and a complete list of the papers read at its monthly meetings, which is suggestive of a great deal of delightful instruction and entertainment. The Club has no local habitation, but holds its meetings at the houses of its members, several of whom have private galleries of great excellence. Their riches are made evident by the catalogues of paintings exhibited by the Club at different times in a public manner. The membership of the Club is limited to one hundred members, and some twenty-five are generally elected in advance for admission as vacancies occur for one reason or another. The Club has, unquestionably, done a good deal to encourage the love of good pictures among its members and in Brooklyn. In 1886 it offered a prize of $600 for a competitive etching, and awarded it to Mr. Thomas Moran. It has maintained classes in drawing at the Brooklyn Institute and elsewhere. Its exhibitions have been the principal art events in Brooklyn since the Brooklyn Art Association fell asleep. There are about twenty photogravure reproductions of pictures owned by members of the Club. They are quite unequal in their execution, but some of the worst executed are suggestive of the rarest beauty. These, it would seem, did not lend themselves to reproduction as did some others. A Pelouse and Rico are very happily reproduced. The pamphlet is the work of Dr. Lewis D. Mason of the Club, and is written simply and modestly. Similar clubs may find in it some valuable suggestions.

—From week to week for the last year or two there has been appearing in the literary supplement of the Paris *Figaro* a series of sketches of French writers of fiction under the general heading of "L'Exposition Décennale du Roman Français." This series, which has been of some interest and value, although it has seemed at times to be rather lavish in its bestowal of praise, came to an end on January 11 with a sketch of J. K. Huysmans. Its author adds a postscript to say that his papers might have been almost indefinitely continued if he had chosen to take up the work of "those men of talent who have given their proofs, full of promise for to-morrow." He cites a dozen names of writers who, he prophesies, will attain high distinction within the next ten years. These are as follows: O. Mirbeau, H. Céard, Hennique, Paul Hervieu, Robert de Bonnières, H. Lavedan, Elémir Bourges, G. Guiches, P. Margueritte, J. H. Rosny, P. Adam (author of 'Sous-offs.'), and Paul Bonnetain. Mr. Lowell has laid down with scientific precision the conditions under which it is proper to put on the prophet's mantle and foretell things, and one may be permitted to doubt if these are fulfilled in the case of the critic of the *Figaro*. Not all of those whose names he gives seem certain to be, as he predicts, the masters of French romance of whom Paris will be most proud ten years hence. But it will certainly be interesting to watch the career of all of them. One of them in particular, who is as yet not very well known on this side the water, seems to be a writer of uncommon promise. M. Henri Lavedan has a clearness and concision of style, and a directness and simplicity in telling his stories, that give a strong impression that the critic will make no mistake who appoints a rendezvous with him at the end of the present decade.

—The fourth and fifth parts of the new 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften (Jena: G. Fischer) confirm the impression that this work will contain a mass of material, statistical, bibliographical, and historical, concerning political economy that can nowhere else be found so compactly and exhaustively collected and arranged. As indicating the fulness of treatment accorded to the topics so far reached, it may be mentioned that various branches of the labor question occupy 448 large octavo, double-columned pages, and there is more to come in seven or eight other articles later in the alphabet. The subject is considered in a number of separate treatises subdivided with great system. For instance, there is such a treatise on Industrial Insurance, covering ninety-nine pages, in addition to the thirty-four pages devoted to the article on Insurance against Old Age and Disability, mentioned in our notice of a previous number. The first twenty pages contain a general view of the subject, regarded dogmatically, critically, and historically. This portion is by Schaeffle; then follow seventy-nine pages full of statistics and history, each country being separately taken up in a separate article, beginning with Germany, coming down through Austria, Switzerland, Great Britain, France, etc., and winding up with the United States. The different articles are by different writers, that on Great Britain being by Hasbach, that on this country by Prof. Edward W. Bemis. The same method is followed with all subjects that admit of it, as in the article on Strikes and Lockouts, which covers fifty-nine pages, and, after briefly discussing strikes in general, takes up one country after the other, giving an account of the various strikes in each, down to 1886. On the same plan we have an article of sixty-one pages on the wages question, the first twenty-two pages setting orth the general doctrine, after which the va-

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rious countries are again, in the order already referred to, treated seriatim, from a statistical and critical point of view. The general introduction, by Schönberg, takes a conservative view, entirely free from socialistic bias, and reaches the common-sense conclusion that "attempts to establish a standard for determining fair wages have had the same results as attempts to square the circle."

— Of course, being designed primarily for German readers, this work is unusually full in the department of German legislation on economic matters, and much of what it gives in this way has but a limited practical interest for Americans. Nevertheless, it cannot fail to prove well-nigh indispensable to any one who is required to write or speak on economic subjects. Its bulk promises to be enormous. The prospectus estimates it at 5,600 pages; but as the 816 which have as yet appeared have failed to exhaust the first letter of the alphabet, the estimate will probably fall far short of the consummation. A minor point, of philological interest, to be noted is, that the word "Strikes" is here finally naturalized as a German one, being spelled "Streiks," to get the correct English pronunciation, and printed in Gothic type along with the rest of the text, instead of being set apart in Roman type, as is customary with foreign expressions.

— Schönbach's 'Ueber Lesen und Bildung,' briefly noticed in the *Nation* of April 12, 1888, has met with such favor from the German public that it has now been brought out in a third edition, greatly enlarged and printed from entirely new plates. The three essays which, aside from the book-lists, constituted the original edition, are retained, the new matter consisting of two essays, "Recent German Poetry" (*Dichtung*) and "Realism." The old book-lists have also been enlarged so as to represent more adequately the general movement of contemporary German literature, both prose and verse. In the first of the new essays Schönbach discusses the question whether Germany now has a "literature" in the sense intended when we speak of an Augustan or an Elizabethan literature—that is, a body of literary production having a definable character of its own. To get data for deciding this question he passes in review a number of the more prominent representatives of contemporary German letters, and finds in their work two distinctive marks which separate them from their predecessors. These are, first, a spirit of fidelity to facts, and, secondly, the note of national sentiment. (The obvious query whether these marks are, after all, distinctively German, is not satisfactorily answered.) Having reached the conclusion that fidelity to fact, as a reaction against romanticism, is a general characteristic of all recent German literature, he is naturally brought to a consideration of the school who make fidelity to fact their particular battle-cry and fly the flag of "realism." By this is meant such writers as Bleibtreu, Heiberg, Conrad, and Kretzer, the last-mentioned of whom the essayist regards as the most important of the group. The relation of German realism to the naturalism of Zola and to the older art of Balzac is analyzed in some detail, and analogous phenomena in English and Scandinavian literature are touched on by way of comparison. The author's views are necessarily stated with brevity, but his criticism is thoughtful and temperate. Upon the whole, novel-readers who read for culture as well as for amusement (if there are any such readers still left) will find this little volume of Schönbach's a very useful index to recent German fiction.

RAWLINSON'S PHŒNICIA.

History of Phœnicia. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford, Canon of Canterbury, Corresponding Member of the Royal Academy of Turin. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. xxii., 583. 1889.

WITH this volume on Phœnicia, Canon Rawlinson retires from the Camden Professorship and closes his long and honorable career as historian. He had the good fortune to offer to the public in his larger works attractive histories of nations and periods little known, yet intensely interesting; his books on Babylonia, Assyria, and Persia, in spite of exacter researches made since they were written, continue to be the most accessible and in general the most satisfactory accounts of these countries in the English language. His wide and varied learning, his admirable historical style, and his power of popular presentation have given him deservedly high reputation as an historian. His larger works may be characterized as eminently useful. More cautious praise must be given to most of his smaller books, some of which are so colored by his peculiar religious opinions as to be historically misleading. It must be added that his scholarship is largely of the English type of two generations ago, which had small acquaintance with modern French and German scientific writings.

Rawlinson is at his best in geographical description and historical narration. His chapters on the land, the climate, and productions, and the political history of Phœnicia leave little to be desired in point of clearness and pleasantness of style. His aim has been to make the facts "readily intelligible to the ordinary English reader," and in this he has succeeded admirably. Without making an oppressive array of learning, he knows how to weave the materials of the ancient and the modern sources into an easy and agreeable narrative. There are few contested points in the history of Phœnicia. The period anterior to the eleventh century B.C. is almost a blank, and for what we know of the country after this time we are dependent almost entirely on foreign sources. No native history exists. It is to Egyptian literature, the Old Testament, the Assyrian inscriptions, the Greek and Latin writers, and Josephus that the modern historian must go for his materials. Nor has the history any interest in itself. Phœnicia developed, so far as we know, no political institutions—this was not its function in the history of civilization. Its career is in this respect strikingly similar to that of Israel—for both these peoples the civil-political constitution was merely the framework of an idea; the idea of Israel was religion, the idea of Phœnicia was commerce. Nothing could be more misleading than the assertion of Deutsch ('Literary Remains,' pp. 162, 163, quoted by Rawlinson, p. 55) that the Phœnicians "could boast of a form of government approaching to constitutionalism." The fact is, that the Phœnician government, whether in the mother country or in the colonies, in the monarchy of Sidon and Tyre or in the oligarchy of Carthage, was of a simple nature, into which the conception of a fundamental law that should control the supreme magistrates does not seem to have entered. Rawlinson does not discuss this question, but confines himself to the narration of the political fortunes of the people—a varied story, which he tells in lively and picturesque style; out of a number of passages, one might point to his summing up of Phœnician history under Assyrian rule (pp. 438, 439), and his description of the siege of Tyre by Alexander (pp. 528, 529), as admirable examples of this sort of writing.

It is perhaps due to the author's desire for brevity that he says little or nothing on various points which we should expect to find discussed. He makes a bare allusion, for example, to Phœnician colonies in Greece proper. Probably he regarded the evidence for such colonization as insufficient; yet the presence of Phœnician names and religious rites on the coast of Greece calls for some explanation. In his smaller history, 'The Story of Phœnicia' (New York, 1889), he speaks of colonies in the islands of the Ægean, and adds that it may perhaps be questioned whether the Phœnicians also occupied the Greek mainland (p. 62); in the larger work, after mentioning the islands of the Ægean, he dismisses the mainland with the remark (p. 104) that a Phœnician settlement in Bœotia was the current tradition of the Greek writers. One might expect here at least some reference to Cadmus, Melicertes, and other names which have been collected by Duncker ('History of Antiquity') and other writers. If there were only a couple of names to be dealt with, they might be accounted for by the visits of Phœnician traders to the Greek coast; but where the mass of facts is so great, they are entitled to serious discussion even in a popular history.

There is a similar lack of seriousness in Rawlinson's treatment of the arts, the language, and the religion of the Phœnicians, and of their origin. He has collected a large number of interesting facts, but his interpretation of the facts is often unsatisfactory. His account of the æsthetic arts is taken from good authorities, chiefly Renan and Perrot and Chipiez; but he gives his examples in isolated form, and hardly attempts to trace in definite outline the development of artistic work. His account of the language, naturally brief in such a work, while generally correct, contains some strange statements respecting the alphabet. He declares that there is no Phœnician letter representing the sound of the English *w*; that *sade* (which he writes *tsade*) is superfluous, since it combines the two sounds *t* and *s*; that there is "redundancy in the two forms for *k*, namely, *kaph* and *koph*, in the two for *t*, namely, *teth* and *tau*, and in the two for *s*, namely, *samech* and *shin*" (p. 379). It is difficult to see how Prof. Rawlinson could have made these statements, which contradict well-known and characteristic facts of Semitic phonetics. The *w*-sound (*waw*) was retained in the Greek digamma, and the differences between *sade* and *samek*, *kaph* and *koph*, *teth* and *taw* are as well marked as, for example, the difference between the two German sounds of *ch*.

Rawlinson's treatment of the religion is lacking in breadth and orderliness. The comparative method, now recognized as necessary in the study of all religious systems, and especially applicable in the case of the Semitic, is hardly employed by him at all—an omission which is not the result of ignorance, since other works of his show good acquaintance with the Babylonian-Assyrian pantheon, but which must be ascribed to his defective method. He has little to say of what may be called the biographical or genetic side of the cultus: he does not discuss the question how far the Phœnicians may have borrowed from the Assyrians and the Aramæans, or the Greeks from the Phœnicians. To the large literature which this latter question has recently called forth he makes no reference. Instead of asking whether Heracles and Aphrodite may have had a Phœnician origin, he has rather inclined to adopt the fashion of the Greeks, who contented themselves with a loose identification of each for-

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eign deity with some one of their own. While he mentions the later Phœnician loans from the Egyptian, he persists in always identifying the Phœnician *Hamman* with the Egyptian *Ammon*. He is quite right in attaching small importance to the mythological system which Philo of Byblos pretended to have derived from the Phœnician, Sanchoniathon; but the Phœnician cosmogony deserves more serious treatment than it receives at his hands. No doubt Lenormant has pushed his interpretation of Philo beyond the bounds of discretion (in 'Les Origines de l'Histoire,' vol. i., appendix 2), but that is better than dismissing the whole subject, as Rawlinson does, with the assertion (p. 329) that "if it meant anything to the initiated, the meaning is wholly lost." He does not think it worth while to seek for ideas in the religion. His attitude towards it is not scientifically calm, but rather unfriendly. He credits the Phœnicians with religiousness, but holds that their religious ideas were low and their religious practices largely debasing. His view of the historical progression is that the Phœnicians were at first monotheists, but, through the corruption of fallen humanity, necessarily passed into polytheism. This is only a special application of his general theory of human religious history: "fallen man," he says, "when he becomes conscious to himself of sin, ceases to be able to endure the thought of one perfect infinite being, catches at anything whereby he may be relieved from the intolerable burden of such a thought" (pp. 322, 323). He adds that the imperfection of language helps the result: names, originally expressive of the supreme being's attributes, come to designate other separate beings, and many gods are substituted for one. This view of the origin of polytheism is the opposite of that which prevails among modern scientific historians of religion. The Phœnician pantheon, like all other pantheons, is doubtless a developed nature-worship, and, like all Semitic pantheons, exhibits a striving towards monotheism. The repulsive features of the Phœnician religion were human sacrifice and the licentiousness of certain forms of their worship. But even these facts must be studied not simply from the point of view of a moral catechism, but in the light of the whole national life. Such customs are of course to be deplored and condemned; but it must not be forgotten that there is no ground for believing that the social life of the Phœnicians was inferior in kindliness and purity to that of the Hebrews, the Greeks, and the Romans. The cases are not few where the ethical conduct of a community has been independent of certain prescriptions in its religious code.

Rawlinson decides (chiefly on linguistic grounds) in favor of the Semitic origin of the Phœnicians, probably explaining the statement in the tenth chapter of Genesis, that they are the descendants of Ham, as referring to a race that preceded the Semites in Phœnicia. He finds difficulty in determining their position within the Semitic group (p. 52), but this is mainly because he does not recognize a separate Canaanitic division. His estimate of their character and achievements is decidedly favorable: he credits them with industry and perseverance, audacity in enterprise, adaptability and pliability, and acuteness of intellect, and defends them against the charge of want of good faith. The picture that he gives of their courage and heroism, and of their prowess as traders, navigators, and discoverers, is an attractive one. He regards them as the inventors of the alphabet, and (following Gesenius) thinks it probable that they derived their letters not from Egyptian or Babylonian characters, but from hieroglyphics of their own. It is certainly true that the cuneiform or the Egyptian origin of the Phœnician script has not been clearly proved; of his own theory it may be said that it is quite conceivable, and that the evidence that we have is rather against than for it. The fact, adduced by him, that the names of the letters designate objects (ox, house, etc.) different from those of the Egyptian cannot be regarded as decisive, since the Phœnicians, if they had borrowed from a foreign nation, might easily (as has elsewhere occurred) have given their letters designations based on fancied resemblances to other than the original objects. On the other hand, the absence of all traces of Phœnician ideograms, and the widespread tradition of antiquity that the Phœnician letters came from Egypt, are facts decidedly unfriendly to the hypothesis of a native origin for them.

The subject is at present involved in obscurity, and the same thing must be said of the question as to the primitive home of the Phœnicians, or the point from which they came to the Mediterranean coast. Rawlinson adopts the common view (based on statements of Herodotus, Strabo, and Justin) that their original abode was on the Persian Gulf. This opinion appears to rest on a not very well authenticated Phœnician tradition, and has been called in question by various modern writers, some of whom would find the native land of the Phœnicians in Arabia, while others would identify Justin's "Syrian lake" (for so we must read in Justin 18, 3, and not "Assyrian lake") with the Dead Sea. The data do not seem sufficient at present to permit a definite answer to the question. There are, in fact, no good historical grounds for dividing the early fortunes of the Phœnicians sharply from those of other Canaanitish peoples. Over the early history of all the Semitic nations doubt still hangs; it is in Western Asia, on the Mediterranean, that we first meet Phœnicians, Amorites, and Hebrews, and beyond this point we are not able to trace them with any certainty.

AMERICAN HISTORY IN FOREIGN ARCHIVES.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. With Descriptions, Editorial Notes, Collations, References and Translations. Vol. I., Nos. 1–130; Vol. II., Nos. 131–234. Issued only to subscribers at 4 Trafalgar Square, Charing Cross, London. November, 1889, and December, 1889.

THE first two volumes of Mr. Stevens's great publication have appeared. The execution of the work is almost perfect. The facsimiles are given us on folios of heavy, hand-made paper, each document by itself. We will make but two suggestions: it would be well if, in future volumes, the exact size and shape of the manuscript that is copied were indicated by a line. More care should be taken in the translation of documents in foreign languages. French *livres* are not pounds, but francs.

A collection of correspondence gains immensely by being published in facsimile; the handwriting brings us far nearer to the writer than any type can do. And although Mr. Stevens has promised us in his prospectus that "all documents facsimiled will be of real historical value," we shall not quarrel with him for giving his promise a broad interpretation. The love affairs of Capt. Jo. Hynson are not exactly of historical importance, but they lend a human interest to that fine specimen of the blackguard; and we should be sorry to lose the letter of Ludwell Lee, whose exact age we have not been able to ascertain, to his father in America:

PARIS October 5th 1777

DEAR PAPA I have recieved both your letters which I'll assure you gave me infinite pleasure to see that you are all well in America. Your last came to hand before the first and in both I see your desire that I should apply myself to the study of Eloquence, & the law, which as far as I can I will endeavour to perform, being always ready to do all things which you command me. My Uncle is exceeding good to me in every respect, he gives me speeches to get by heart, which I repeat to him, and he corrects me when he finds me wrong. Under such happy auspices I should improve & I should think myself unpardonable indeed, & very much defective to your goodness & My Uncles, should I not do every thing in my power to do so. I am yet at the Pension studying the Mathematiques, French, & other things which are always useful; either for a soldier or any other emploiment. My Brother is at Nants, & I hear from him very often, he writes very good french, & I am told speaks it very well. I am very glad to hear that you are blessed with another daughter, & hoping to hear from you again soon that you are all well I shall finish by desiring you to give my duty to Mama & love to my sisters & all my relations, & subscribing myself your ever dutiful and affectionate Son

LUDWELL LEE

The two volumes before us are unequally divided between two different subjects. The former of these, which occupies half of the first volume and the whole of the second, is the correspondence of the British Government with its political agents and spies during the year 1777. With this are found intercepted letters and copies of letters opened in the post-office. The tampering with the mails was a regular part of Government in those days. Nor were letters sent by private hand entirely safe. For American business of this sort, the Rev. John Vardill, "an American clergyman who lives chiefly on his Majesty's bounty," was the agent employed, and he seems to have been skilful in his business. Thus we read (134): "Mr. Vardill presᵗˢ his Compˢ to Mʳ Eden & wishes to see him much, as he has Letters from America to communicate which must be given to the Persons to whom they are directed. Wednesd." And again (137): "Sʳ — Mʳˢ *Bancroft* will leave London, for France, on Tuesday next & will probably be entrusted with Letters to her Husband, & others in Paris. There is a method of obtaining a perusal of them, if you deem it an object worth attending to. You will, if convenient, signify your pleasure—& impute this address not to a desire of meddling, but a zeal for the service & gratitude for the Patronage experienced from Govᵗ by your very humbˡ Servᵗ J Vardill." Further on, we find (138) that, perhaps in consequence of the above letter, a Mr. Hake, who had "some particular influence with Mʳˢ Bancroft," was employed to accompany her on her journey, and that he got possession of all her letters, which were carefully opened, and, without any apparent alteration, returned to her (as they did not appear to contain anything material) after copies had been taken of parts of them.

Among the persons concerned in the correspondence, some are of the highest and some of the lowest station. First we have Lord Suffolk, Secretary of State for the Northern Department, to whom many of the reports are addressed. Then there is William Eden, Esq., one of the lords of the Board of Trade and Plantations, a rising politician, with promotion in prospect and a peerage in the background. Next comes Paul Wentworth, a kinsman to the last royal Governor of New Hampshire, and a person of importance in a small way. This man had arrived in New England from the West Indies as early as 1757, and from that

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time, although often absent from the province, had continued to have interests in New Hampshire. In a letter written by the Governor in 1769, Paul Wentworth is spoken of as "personally known to most of the House and Council, and extremely respected by the whole country." Not long after this letter was written, he was appointed one of his Majesty's Council for the province, and in 1774 he was acting as its agent in London. In that year, or in 1775, he seems to have retired from the agency, perhaps on account of Tory sympathies. Wentworth was a rich man, and moved in better society than most Americans in London. Although a loyalist, he kept up his acquaintance with his friends of the rebel party and enjoyed their confidence. So far were his neighbors in New Hampshire from bearing him any especial ill-will on account of his Toryism that, in 1789, Dartmouth College, of which he was a benefactor, conferred on him the honorary degree of LL.D. Yet this man, rich, prosperous, and trusted, was not only working against his friends, as he had a perfect right to do in the interests of the Government under which he was born, but was the principal agent in setting spies upon them. He abused their confidence in the most shameful manner, and was not above the commission of petty larceny on occasion. He writes from Paris on the 11th of May, 1777 (156):

"I have had a visit from Mr Lee; having heard that he lodged at the Hotel d'Angleterre, rue de Richelieu, I sent to take an apartment there, & he immediately called upon me. I returned the visit, & found his servant preparing visit cards, with one of which I made free, and send it inclosed as a curiosity. I took the same liberty with the cards from his visitors, which I have given to Lord Stormont, imagining they may lead to discoverys. I tho't too the enclosed seal may be usefull at the Post office, as it came to a Letter addressed to *The Honorble* A. L., in English under cover to M. Grand, rue monmartre, and I could gather—imperfectly—that it talked of a ship fitting out somewhere for America."

On a later occasion, Wentworth had a meeting with Silas Deane, of which he says (231) that they agreed that both were "strictly bound to secrecy and the confidence of private gentlemen wishing well to both countries." The spy proceeded to sit down as soon as the interview was over, and write out the conversation in detail for the use of the English Government. Paul Wentworth was not entirely trusted in England. King George III., as we learn from his correspondence with Lord North, had no confidence in what the agent reported, unless it were confirmed by others. "He is an avowed stock-jobber," said his Majesty, "and, therefore, though I approve of employing him, I never let that go out of my mind."

We get in these volumes the whole story of another and very subordinate traitor—to our minds, we confess, less disgusting than the prosperous merchant, Paul Wentworth. This is Capt. Joseph Hynson, above referred to, whose affairs take up a good deal of space. We should advise the reader of these papers to begin with that numbered 53, and headed "Minutes [for the King] of what has passed respecting Hynson"; without which many of those that precede it are not fully comprehensible. It appears from this document that Hynson had in former times been employed as a master of several vessels belonging to American merchants, and, being a skilful seaman, was said to have been engaged by Franklin's agents to fit out a sloop fit to carry despatches from France to Philadelphia.

"Mrs Jump, with whom Hynson lodged, & who with many other Ladies mentioned in the Packet N° 3 is much attach'd to him, had from Anxiety for his safety given the first Hint to Verdell [Vardill], who expostulated with Him & found Him disposed to be of any use that might be thought expedient. Verdell however not being authorized to arrange any Plan, Hynson set out for Dover with Nicholson a Virginia Captain engaged to command a Rebel Privateer fitting out at Nantz, & zealous for the Rebels."

Here we have Hynson, a bluff, careless, unscrupulous sailor, caring nothing for patriotism or honesty, ready to serve the King or the rebels, and to betray either to the other. We presently see him a centre of plots, with an English lieutenant-colonel dancing attendance on his movements, and with "two topsail vessels to carry about 16 guns" in readiness. We follow him in the reports of the lieutenant-colonel, and in his own correspondence with the many ladies who are much attached to him. He was kept waiting from month to month at Dover, Paris, Havre, and there was difficulty about his vessel. Lord Stormont, the British Ambassador at the Court of Versailles, had suspicions, not ill-founded, of his trustworthiness. At last the opportunity of being useful arrived. Hynson was waiting at Havre when he found that one Captain Folger had been intrusted by the American Commissioners in Paris with despatches for Congress, and was to sail with them immediately. Whereupon Hynson took an opportunity of sending Folger out on some business in the docks, while he, slipping off the string at one end of the packet, got possession of the despatches, and then, making up a paper equal in length and thickness to what he had taken out, dexterously filled the vacant place, shut up the end of the bundle, and passed the same string back again. On Folger's return the bundle was well covered, put into a bag and sealed, never again to be given out of Folger's hands (unless it were thrown overboard in case of meeting with an enemy) until it should be delivered into the hands of the authorities in America. We do not know how this ingenious trick came to be known, within a few days of its perpetration, to the Commissioners at Paris, but we are glad to learn that Deane refused Hynson's light-minded offer to act as a double traitor.

The second subject dealt with in this collection is the conciliatory bills of 1778, and the Commission sent to America to arrange terms of peace. It is pleasant to turn from the letters of such rascals as Wentworth, Hynson, and Vardill to the correspondence of an honorable man like Lord Carlisle. He went to America on a vain errand, for his mission depended for its success on active military measures, and, before he set out, the British Government had decided, without his knowledge, to carry on only a defensive warfare. When the Commissioners arrived in Philadelphia, they found Sir Henry Clinton preparing to evacuate the city. Congress would listen to no terms unless independence were first conceded, or the whole territory of the United States abandoned by the British armies. The active interference of France was daily expected. Under these circumstances, Lord Carlisle thought it best to offer at once the best terms he was authorized to give. He shortly afterwards drew up a minute of his reasons for so doing, and a paper of considerations of the advantages resulting to Great Britain and America from the terms offered. These papers, and his other writings, including a long private account of the whole work of the Commission, are fair, manly, and reasonable in tone. Lord Carlisle was a wit and an author, and had the reputation of being one of the best-dressed men in London. He was not great, but we cannot help liking him; all the better, perhaps, that he did not succeed in leading back America to the foot of the English throne.

In conclusion, we heartily recommend this collection to all serious students of the history of the Revolutionary War. That history has been so thoroughly studied that no very important fact hitherto unknown is ever likely to be discovered in it. But for the thorough understanding of minor characters and secondary events, and for side lights upon persons and things of great importance, few publications can prove more useful than Mr. Stevens's facsimiles. His enormous labor deserves the fullest support from public libraries and from private collectors.

MORE FICTION.

Chita: A Memory of Last Island. By Lafcadio Hearn. Harper & Bros.

The Light of Her Countenance. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. D. Appleton & Co.

A Sane Lunatic. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Memoirs of a Millionaire. By Lucia True Ames. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Would You Kill Him? By George Parsons Lathrop. Harper & Bros.

Miss Shafto. By W. E. Norris. Henry Holt & Co.

The Nether World. By George Gissing. Harper & Bros.

'CHITA' is the slightest possible melody set to an elaborate accompaniment. Off the coast of Louisiana lies an archipelago of islands, approached by a course through a half-drowned marsh country, and populated by a motley collection of races, where Malays, Spaniards, and Chinamen may be found. The islands themselves are now mainly known as bathing resorts. One of these, Last Island, once the most fashionable watering-place of the South, was, in 1856, torn in two by a mighty tidal wave, which concentrated into a night's work what the sea is doing for the other islands, slowly and surely, year by year.

The story of 'Chita' is laid in this island region, and has to do with the demolition of Last Island, the subject fitting itself, with a grim appropriateness, to many tragedies of the year just elapsed. A more uniquely picturesque scene for a romance, this side of the Atlantic does not afford. The romance, as already hinted, is, not less than the islands themselves (perhaps for the sake of analogy), so overwhelmed by the real subject of the book—the sea—as to be a mere incident in the great ocean spaces. Possibly it is the Greek half of Mr. Hearn's ancestry crying out, "Thalatta!" At all events, he feels the sea like a poet, and summons to its portrayal in every phase a wild, hypertropical language which is the blemish of the book. Such words as "ivorine," "gracile," and "blattering"; such phrases as "a vibrant lifting up" (of the sea), "a fluttering and scattering of rose-leaves of fire," "a jewel light as of vaporized sapphire," "the stridulous telegraphy of crickets," "scudding mockeries of ridged foam," "imageries multi-colored of mountain frondage," occur till one has a feeling of having dined on lucent syrup tinct with cinnamon. On the whole, the impression left by the book is that of an ill-treated opportunity, a rarely fine subject made tiresome by a lush style.

Mr. Boyesen has done well to name his novel 'The Light of Her Countenance,' for the woman who owns the countenance is the only (and, it must be added, slight) inducement to read the book. She is a Juno-like beauty who

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moves through the pages with very expensive clothes and a much-insisted-on "personality." But personality in fiction, unlike that in real life, must be founded on something said or done. The fair Constance of Mr. Boyesen's idolatry says and does nothing of any significance, and the high hopes with which we prepare to be enslaved by her grow fainter with every chapter. When at last she retires from the scene in a costume rendered by sorrow "less aggressively stylish and voluminous" than of old, we are quite ready to part with her, so shadowy has she become. Compensation lies in the fact that when Mr. Boyesen's heroines do say or do anything (except salmon-fishing, in which they excel), it is often something detestable. There is no mean between the beautiful negation Constance, and the handsome American Delia, who goes to Europe as agent for the sale of the Emancipation Waist, on which she discourses freely to English baronets and Italian peers. Her "girlish bravado," as Mr. Boyesen playfully calls it, proves captivating to the English mind, and she becomes Lady Armitage. Anything more depressing than the would-be humor of this episode, it is difficult to imagine. The whole book bears unmistakable imprint of having been made after a prescription—so much tragedy, so much love, so much politics, landscape, and art. No leading motive holds the parts in any relationship, and the novel, obeying a law of nature, is as weak as its weakest part. The strongest part appears to us to be a chapter on Tammany election methods.

'A Sane Lunatic' is a story founded in part upon the blunders arising from the resemblance between twin brothers. The comedy of errors does not end there, however; the twin brothers themselves make as many curious mistakes as they cause others to make, the atmosphere of confusion in which they live having seemingly struck inward. The hero's taking the heroine (who is no more silly than any other well-behaved heroine) for an insane patient, is but one example of the prevalent mental astigmatism of the book. The young woman, and even the old maids and gray-haired parents, succumb to the microbes of mistake which fill the atmosphere, and act and talk at cross purposes in a very parody of comedy. The rest is chatter, chaff, and puns, and the whole, though not without a certain cheap brightness, forms a rather silly book.

To decide upon the merits of the 'Memoirs of a Millionaire' belongs rather to the philanthropist and political economist than to the critic of fiction. In this age of organized charities and of awakened altruism, no book on the mental, spiritual, or material welfare of the race can be simply a romance. It is an appeal or an argument. 'Looking Backward' creates a hundred Bellamy societies, and we can see no reason why, from the present book, there may not spring up all over the land Mildred Brewster clubs. It will be for them and not for the reviewer to test the value of Mildred Brewster's schemes. Whether unsectarian missionaries will avail for promoting the welfare of the degraded in foreign lands, for suppressing the slave-trade, and preventing the liquor traffic between civilized and barbarous nations; whether tenement-houses with cooperative cooking and berth beds will tend to the health and happiness of the poor; whether apartment-houses for the middle classes with separate back yards and windows five feet by three and a half, will solve some of the puzzles of life; whether gifts for libraries throughout the land, if given on condition of the money being duplicated by the recipients, really will make readers of the rural communities of the West, and reduce the numbers of foreign-born insane; whether women really are, "as a rule, more faithful and conscientious than men"; whether twenty-five weekly lectures, illustrated by the stereopticon, with a cornet leading a chorus of school-children, will conduce to "stimulating thought in the direction of good citizenship"; whether colored orphanages are the appointed means of grace at the South; whether social clubs for young factory girls and men (where the entertaining is done by five or six "King's Daughters," with their gentlemen escorts) will improve the morals and manners of the factory contingent; and whether buying up enough stock in Southern papers to control them is going to expel Bourbonism—these are some, but by no means all, of the problems to be tested by trial when the 'Memoirs of a Millionaire' shall have founded its family of clubs. If they do not save the world, we think there will be no need to preserve the book as a novel.

The last few pages of Mr. Lathrop's very long story explain the title. Shall a man who has committed murder suffer the death-penalty, or would it be better for him to live and "make his penance a long and purifying endurance"? The latter view is loftily and nobly urged in the few concluding pages. Yet never had lofty and noble climax so many, so prosaic, or so irrelevant approaches. The earlier chapters contain a minute and rather diverting account of the wheat market, and of the causes and progress of a wheat panic. This alone would have made a small novel and an entertaining one; but it proves to be only an incidental divertisement: there follow volumes of satire upon the superficial culture of certain New York social circles; then more upon New York elections; now an old maid's meddling between a man and his wife holds the scene for many pages, and threatens to become the leading motive of the story; next, a long diatribe upon ocean steamers is interjected; finally, on page 303, the murder is committed, and the serious business begins of discussing what is the right punishment for taking a life. Naturally, the dignity of the end is put in forlorn aspect by the chaos that goes before. In a word, construction is hopelessly lacking. The purpose, when at last reached, is strongly stated, but although we see it we are in no mood to feel it. It is said that Americans find themselves equally and only at home in the antipodal regions of hard facts and of romance. Mr. Lathrop is a striking example in point. Now he invests his steam-engines and grain-elevators with dramatic interest; again, his fancy gleams with a light akin to that ray which Hawthorne threw on land and sea; but in the novel-writers' land, which may be said to lie between the poles, he seems to us far from home.

In 'Miss Shafto,' on the contrary, what chiefly strikes the reader is the absence of the 'prentice hand. All bears the mark of the expert, so far as construction and coherence go. Mr. Norris, above all things, knows how. One is sure of a comfortable, cheerful, and especially of an English hour with him. One will neither be plunged into storm and stress, nor raised to imagination's giddy heights. Good fare is furnished, daintily prepared; the service withal is so perfect that possibly, on reflecting, we find that it misled us a little as to the quality of the cheer. It was not superfine, perhaps, after all; but will any one quarrel with this state of things? No one, surely, who can enjoy a sufficiently satisfactory story, garnished with delightful reflections upon men, women, and things, made in a mood of easy-going cynicism, which, while admitting that things are not ideal, finds that they might be much worse, and that at the darkest they will not last very long.

'The Nether World' is another effort to put the problem of the poor before us. The crowded neighborhoods of East London, with which Mr. Besant has made us familiar, appear in a different aspect, although the street corners and the trades are unchanged. The 'Nether World' is a dreadful place, where there are no happy surprises such as Mr. Besant permits his readers, where the possibility of romance slowly dissipates in the dun-colored atmosphere of economic hopelessness. In the attempt to give an outline of the story, we are struck by the inadequacy of the ordinary critical vocabulary. We cannot say that we are introduced to the characters—we fall afoul of most of them. Longer acquaintance seems only to add to the gloomy sum total of their undesirable natural endowment and its unremunerative spiritual development. The author ought in justice to be relieved of any intention of writing a pleasant story, but it may be questioned whether he meant to give so strongly the impression that in the nether world the only force that can be counted on is the tendency to sag. In the production of this impression the resources of a powerful literary method have been employed. There is little of the sketchy work with which the problems of our time are often detailed in fiction: everything here is stalwart, robust, not to be eluded, not to be whiffed away by impatient distaste, nor ignored by lofty preoccupation. There is darkness that can be felt, and crime that goes to make up statistics, and neither lends itself to a distinctively æsthetic impression. It is terribly real, terribly painful. The imagination of the reader cannot, like most of the people whose bad fortune he follows, find refuge in "the public" and a taste for drink.

A narrative method nearly as minute as that of Scott, inferences as baldly put as if by a statistical expert, produce a reaction at last. Perhaps the best result of this realism is the question left now and then in a reader's mind, Is there really any nether world? Do not Sidney Kirkwood and Jane Snowdon, with their self-denying lives and steadfast ideals, redeem it all? But even if not, one is tempted to ask whether the avowed realism of the result has not occasionally deepened the shadows of description too much. The writer of this notice happened to be in St. John's Square on the day of the great popular demonstration in Regent's Park when the crowd was gathering, and neither surroundings nor people made an impression of hopeless sordidness. The dignity of the past was not unmatched by something very like it in the present. "The people" were often deformed, oftener yet toil-worn and prematurely old, but "the people" were often sturdy and resolutely content. Three college professors from the United States found no difficulty, even at such a time, in establishing relations of intelligent sympathy with the worst-dressed and the worst-featured of the swarming crowds: a common humanity had not been buried far below the surface even by years of toil and trouble in the nether world. The place that holds all sorts and conditions of men cannot, after all, be a world apart.

But there is one effect of this realism greatly needed in the popular consideration of the questions involved. It is the steady emphasis of the fact that these are literally living troubles; that they cannot be settled by logic nor yet by the decisions of a critical moment—they must be haltingly lived out and established by slow years in bone and nerve. Moreover, this story touches upon a difficulty often unrecognized or

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eluded by writers of science and fiction—the poor do not, as a matter of course, become possessed of a missionary spirit in proportion as they are more highly organized and better able to maintain themselves. They long to get out of it all, but points of departure are rarely attractive places in a logical, æsthetic, or moral sense. And when they accept the task of living in better spirit the life about them, existence is still a puzzle, still sad to them, though neither so mad nor so bad as that of their neighbors. The characters depicted in 'The Nether World' may be roughly divided into two classes—those who do as they like and are wretched, and those who do as they ought and are not happy. But, cramped as has been the outlook for all, the latter have managed to smuggle in an ideal. It is not necessary to ask for the sources of supply. In plain life, perhaps, people rarely go back of the every-day virtues, patience, charity, long-suffering. For them possession does away with the need of philosophy. The author's realism gives expression to much that is menacing in our time. It calls our attention sharply, almost roughly, to our ill-discharged brotherhood. But, however much of blunder and sin may be laid to our charge, this final victory of the ideal spares us the sight of humanity spoiled and imbruted. "Where they abode it was not all dark. Sorrow certainly awaited them, perchance defeat in even the humble aims that they had set themselves; but at least their lives would remain a protest against those brute forces of society which fill with wreck the abysses of the nether world."

Handbook of Commercial Geography. By Geo. G. Chisholm, M.A., B.Sc., Fellow of the Royal Geographical and Statistical Societies. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

No science bearing equally important relations to the welfare of man as affected by his physical surroundings receives so little attention in our higher institutions of learning as geography. Many of our best universities give no instruction in it, few of the students ever possess a good atlas, and most of them are destitute of any systematic knowledge of the science. In this country geography seems to be regarded as a subject like English grammar—if one only masters the elements, the rest can be absorbed by frequenting good society. The study of a range of phenomena and laws influencing most profoundly human history and development is relegated to childhood, when the mind is incapable of grasping their importance. Consequently, the man blunders along with the child's ideas, unless he is aroused by travel or by a growing sense of mortification at his ignorance. The question of trade with South America, as discussed in our papers, offers a pertinent illustration. Very little attention is given to the geographical side of it. Few probably realize that the southeastern European ports are two or three days nearer Buenos Ayres than New York is, or that New York is not two days nearer than are Liverpool and London.

The publication during the past year of three manuals of commercial geography may indicate a growing sense of the importance of the geographical element in industrial life. Such a change of view the work of Mr. Chisholm, with its succinct style and admirable method, is well fitted to promote. It has been his effort to impart an intellectual interest to the facts of geography as relating to commerce. He has kept in view three classes of readers: teachers desiring to enliven the ordinary work in geography by illustrations from commercial life; students in institutions giving especial attention to commercial education; and lastly those beginning commercial life who take an intelligent interest in making their private studies bear upon their business. He first briefly considers these subjects: climate, soil, labor, communication, the destructive action of nature; then about one-third of the book is devoted to a description of the leading commodities and of the conditions of their production. The last half of the text is a systematic review of the world by countries, discussing their natural resources, present condition, and future prospects as fields of commerce. An appendix of fifty pages contains a great variety of illustrative statistics. The most important facts are graphically represented in twenty-nine maps, while an adequate index completes what is one of the best examples of text-book workmanship it has been our pleasure to examine.

In reading the chapter on Great Britain, even one familiar with the country is vividly impressed with the contiguity of her resources: not only are the supplies of coal and iron extraordinarily rich, but they are conveniently situated, both as regards each other and as regards foreign trade. No part of the island is one hundred miles from a seaport, and there are in the United Kingdom more than twenty seaports with a depth of at least twenty-five feet at high water. The whole chapter is a most instructive picture of the influence of geography on industry, and one sees almost at a glance the wonderful natural adaptation of Great Britain for the position in the modern industrial world which an energetic people have given her. Could Aristotle or Strabo have had a presentiment of the forces of modern industrial life, and have known the hidden resources of that foggy island near the boundary of the world, they must have foreseen with absolute certainty that the people of the Mediterranean peninsulas would some time have to resign the first place in wealth and civilization to a people then the mere shadow of a name.

Another vivid impression is, that of all the new lands occupied by Europeans since the era of discovery, the eastern half of the United States is by far the best, in fact the very cream of the whole. As regards the single element of rain, the Russian meteorologist Voeikof asserts that there is "no other part of the earth with a considerable rainfall during the summer months over so great an extent of territory in middle latitudes." Neither South America, Australia, Siberia, nor Africa at present gives promise of possessing a territory at all comparable in general facilities and attractiveness to the United States east of the 100th meridian. When one realizes the dependence of our civilization upon coal and iron, it is difficult to repress a wondering apprehension as to what will happen when the supply of these precious minerals is exhausted. That that event is remote, the reader of Mr. Chisholm's pages cannot fail to conclude. Only a very small part of the known supplies have been worked. In China, "Eastern Se-chwan, and Northern Yünnan might be described as one enormous coalfield." Siberia has one coalfield which alone has an area of 16,000 square miles. A sharp contrast between ancient and modern life is pointed by the simple statement that the cost of smelting a ton of iron by the old Roman method would now be not less than $1,000! Among the countries producing charcoal pig the United States should be included. The production in the census year exceeded 400,000 tons. Among other interesting facts, Mr. Chisholm tells us that in 1887 nearly £4,000,000 worth of avowed oleomargarine was imported into Great Britain (chiefly from Holland), a value more than half that of all the English imports early in the eighteenth century. Other new articles of food are "corned whale" exported from Norway (apparently as corned beef), and dugong bacon exported from Queensland. In the account of United States fisheries, the sword-fishery ought to have been mentioned.

Mr. Chisholm states that German commerce has advanced with greater rapidity in the last twenty years than that of any other European country. The greatest element in the increase of exports is sugar. As this is a result of the bounty system, it can hardly be viewed with the same satisfaction that would be felt over a purely natural increase. An important factor in the increased exports to Spain is potato spirit, which is largely used for adulterating Spanish wines. The Germans have also shown much enterprise in producing "cheap and comparatively worthless articles," which meet the ignorant demand of the people of South America. Among the causes of the general increase in German trade, Mr. Chisholm emphasizes technical and commercial education, the construction of the Alpine tunnels, and the vast acquisition of capital through the French indemnity. We are inclined to regard this last cause as largely illusory. Nine-tenths of the indemnity was applied to war purposes. The increase of capital was indirectly produced by the rapid payment of the Government obligations. Capital thus released became extraordinarily abundant in the market, a speculative spirit was promoted, and there was a "boom" for a while, but the airy edifice collapsed, and in 1873 the financial and industrial depression in Germany was very great.

Mr. Chisholm places the invention of loaf-sugar in the fifteenth century, but an inferior form of loaf-sugar was a staple article in the Levant trade in the middle ages. On p. 384 it is stated that the Erie Canal "was the means by which wheaten bread first came into general use (in place of rye bread) in a large part of the Eastern States." The service of the Erie Canal was rather in providing an Eastern market for western New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio products. The Middle Eastern States were great wheat-producers in the eighteenth century. But if Mr. Chisholm uses Eastern States instead of New England States, we believe he is still in error. The Erie Canal did not introduce wheat flour into New England for the first time, but exposed New England wheat-growing to a Western competition which it could not stand.

Inasmuch as Mr. Chisholm's error seems to be shared by a prominent American historian (see MacMaster, vol. i., p. 18), it may not be uninteresting to advance some evidence on the other side. In the year 1791-'2 Massachusetts exported 26,736 barrels of flour, and Rhode Island and Connecticut 6,225 and 4,411 barrels respectively. Adam Seybert, in his 'Statistical Annals,' reckons wheat flour as one of the leading exports of Vermont. Payne's Geography (N. Y., 1799) says of New England: "In many of the inland parts wheat is raised in large quantities, but on the seacoast it has never been cultivated successfully, being subject to blasts." Going back a century and a half, we find in the early records of New Haven that in November, 1644, it was voted that every one so disposed should contribute a peck of wheat for indigent students at Harvard. Accordingly, in the record of the General Court for March 16, 1645, we read: "Mr. Atwater, the present Treasurer, informed the Court that he had sent from Connecticut forty bushels of wheat for the College by Goodman

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Rodman, for the last year's gift of New Haven, although he had not received so much" (Baldwin's 'Annals of Yale College,' p. 6). These references are sufficient to prove that the ancient Yankees did not live exclusively on johnnycake or Boston brown-bread. Two slight errors of the press may further be noted. On p. 369 the eastern boundary of the arid area of the United States is given as 120° instead of 100°, and on p. 109 the date of Jay's treaty is given as 1792 instead of 1794.

A Life of John Davis the Navigator, 1550-1605, discoverer of Davis Straits. By Clements R. Markham, C.B., F.R.S. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. viii.-301. Illustrated.

JOHN DAVIS was born at Sandridge, Devonshire, in about the year 1550. He was the son of a yeoman who owned a small freehold in the parish of Stoke Gabriel, whose worm-eaten church register contains the record of his marriage and the baptism of his children. The River Dart in this part of its course widens out, resembling a lake surrounded by wooded hills. A little lower down is the land-locked little harbor of Dartmouth, in those days much frequented and the seat of a ship-building industry of some importance. These placid waters were the nursery of a brotherhood of naval heroes. John and Humphrey Gilbert were some years older than John Davis and his brother Edward, but Adrian Gilbert, the half-brothers Carew, and Walter Raleigh were a few years younger. John Davis certainly received a classical education, but his early life is not recorded, though at the age of twenty-eight he appears on the scene as a commander of known valor and responsibility, in whom merchants and other adventurers reposed trust and confidence. He was an acquaintance and in some sort a pupil of the celebrated Dr. Dee of Mortlake, whose reputation as a philosopher, mathematician, and collector of books, charts, and aids to navigation, became, in later days, somewhat obscured by his infatuation for the occult sciences.

Through Dee's influence, Cecil and Walsingham were brought to promote explorations for a northwest passage to the Indies, to the expense of which merchants of London and Exeter contributed, and for which a charter was granted by Queen Elizabeth to Walter Raleigh, Adrian Gilbert, and John Davis. Two small vessels, the *Sunshine* of London and the *Moonshine* of Dartmouth, of fifty and thirty-five tons respectively, were fitted out, and sailed June 7, 1585, under the command of John Davis and William Bruton. This expedition rounded Cape Farewell at the south end of Greenland, discovered Davis Strait (penetrating to the Arctic circle), and noted several openings on its western shores. After their return, a second expedition of four vessels, the smallest a pinnace of ten tons, was fitted out to continue the work, and sailed in May, 1586. After coasting along the West Greenland shore, Davis crossed the strait and explored Cumberland Inlet and the coast southward to the 57th parallel. He discovered the rich codfisheries on the Labrador coast and probably reached the northern coast of Newfoundland. A third expedition in the following year attained to 72° north latitude on the West Greenland coast, coasted the "middle pack," discovered Frobisher Inlet, which the geographers of that day had located on the east coast of Greenland, and discovered the entrance of Hudson Strait, with its turbulent currents and "furious overfall." After visiting the Labrador coast, Davis returned to England.

In these voyages all the coasts not actually discovered were remapped and put on a scientific basis. To Davis we owe the most exact delineation of the Labrador coast until modern times. Cabot and the Portuguese had visited it, but their visits led to nothing intelligible in cartography. Davis converted this part of the Arctic regions from half-mythical confusion into a defined area the limits and conditions of which were known, and he clearly pointed out the work destined for his successors. He was the first to make scientific observations for latitude and the variation of the compass in this part of the world.

After his return, Davis took part in the repulse of the Spanish Armada. His next enterprise was a voyage to the Straits of Magellan as a companion of the enterprising and unscrupulous Cavendish. The expedition was unfortunate, but, in spite of the difficulties encountered, Davis made surveys in the Straits and discovered the group now known as the Falkland Islands. Davis and his vessel finally reached Ireland in 1593 in desperate plight, and with losses which practically made him a ruined man. Worse than all, evil had entered his home and left his three children worse than motherless. Davis met his misfortunes with calm fortitude, and passed the succeeding two years in composing and printing a work on navigation, in preparing accurate charts of British waters, and inventing an instrument for measuring the altitude of the heavenly bodies, which was the received instrument until the invention of Hadley's reflecting quadrant in 1731. He also published, under the title of the "Worlde's Hydrographical Description," an appeal for the continuation of the search for a Northwest Passage.

Later, he was with Essex on his expeditions to the Azores; he accompanied as pilot a Dutch expedition to the East Indies, and on his return was appointed chief pilot of the fleet to the first expedition of the East India Company. Among those who laid the foundations of British empire in India he takes an honorable place. On his second voyage, December 27, 1605, while in the Straits of Malacca, he was murdered by Japanese pirates who had been succored by his vessel and injudiciously allowed to retain their arms. Of the four boys who had been companions on the banks of the Dart, three had gone to their reward. Humphrey Gilbert had sunk beneath the Atlantic with words upon his lips which have become immortal. The more peaceful career of Adrian Gilbert had ended quietly at home. Only Raleigh survived, to meet, later, an even harder fate.

Of this life, which we have briefly sketched, Mr. Markham has made a solid yet deeply interesting little volume. Boys who have such books at hand would hardly turn to a dime novel. The publishers have done their part fairly well, though the printing of the illustrations is bad. The maps are good, and there is an excellent index.

Fencing, Boxing, Wrestling. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THIS latest addition to the "Badminton Library" is quite up to the standard of previous volumes, and the large number of young men who are nowadays interested in these branches of athletics will find in it the newest and most approved theories about their favorite sports. The book is admirably illustrated with intaglio plates and woodcuts after photographs, giving the beginner a very life-like idea of the positions adopted in actual practice, and there is but little to criticise in the work of the different authors. Exception may be taken to some sixty pages of fencing bibliography, doubtless exhaustive and accurate, but somewhat out of place in this volume.

Mr. Grove, in the introduction to "Fencing," tells the story of the growth of the science from the rude contests of the middle ages, which were decided by strength and endurance rather than skill, down to the days of Angelo, whose great book, published in 1763, summed up all that was known of the art at that time. The improvement was very gradual, and it remained for the "terrible" Bertrand, who flourished at the beginning of this century, to practically invent the modern science of fencing. Since his time there has been very little improvement, but whatever has been gained during the century is embodied in the chapters headed "Practical Instructions." From these chapters, with the aid of the illustrations, the beginner can learn all that it is possible for a book to teach of this most difficult and most fascinating exercise. Especially clear and accurate is the explanation of the *ripostes*, and all that relates to the guard, the lunge, the time parries, and the *remises*.

It is much to be regretted that in this important work on fencing little or nothing is said of the sabre—the weapon of both cut and thrust. It is in the improvement of sword play that we must look for the best practical result of excellence in fencing; and if there are not available experts in England, Hartl of Vienna or the celebrated masters of northern Italy should have been induced to tell of the improvements in sabre play that have resulted directly from early training with the foil. In fact, the *tireurs de sabre* in these days have adopted the closer movements and quick lunge of the foil to such an extent that no treatise on fencing can be considered complete without a full account of their remarkable progress.

Coming next to boxing, the reader is treated to an historical introduction, beginning with Virgil's estimate of Paris as the best boxer in Troy, and descending by easy stages to Jackson, who taught Byron, and Gully, who was first champion and afterwards member of Parliament. This was early in the century; and the present generation saw John Morrissey in Congress. The fortunes of the English prize ring declined rapidly from the time of the Heenan-Sayers fight in 1860, and a recent brutal exhibition would seem to show that the lowest depth of degradation has been reached. And yet Mr. Michell, in spite of the fact that his excellent illustrations are invariably of *gloved* sparrers, makes the statement that "the only true and correct style of modern boxing is that in which bare fists are used. All the rest are mere imitations—mere travesties of the original." Now this is a strange incongruity in such a book. Sparring with gloves is an admirable exercise for both mind and muscles, while fighting with bare fists cannot possibly be anything but brutal and demoralizing. The one we are glad to have our sons cultivate; the other should be suppressed by the officers of the law, as it is prohibited by the law in all civilized countries. Apart from this extraordinary statement, Mr. Michell has done his work well, and it would be hard to find elsewhere a more lucid account of the science of boxing. Particularly commendable is the importance rightly attached to the movements of the feet.

Mr. Armstrong has done as well for wrestling, especially in his historical retrospect, as his fellow-workers for their specialties. He gives an interesting and clear account of the wide contrasts that exist between the different kinds of wrestling — such as Cornwall and Devon, Lancashire, Cumberland, catch-as-

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catch-can, and Græco-Roman—but he allows his national prejudices to interfere with his judgment when he speaks slightingly of the French (or Græco-Roman) style as compared with the others. As a matter of fact it is free from the brutality that he condemns in the Cornwall and Lancashire styles, while it is a much severer test of endurance, and more conducive to fertility of resource than the Cumberland style, and an impartial spectator would, we think, prefer it to all others. Outside of England it is certainly the most popular kind of wrestling at the present time, and Mr. Armstrong's contemptuous reference to it recalls the insular tone of similar passages in several of the previous volumes of the series. In spite of such blemishes, however, the book, as a whole, is a very good one, and the ever-growing congregation of athletes in this country will derive both pleasure and profit from its perusal.

Israelite and Indian. A Parallel in Planes of Culture. By Garrick Mallery. D. Appleton & Co.

In this pamphlet, the matter of which appeared first in the November and December numbers of the *Popular Science Monthly*, the author, a high authority in Indian ethnology, disclaims altogether any attempt to establish a kinship between the North American Indians and the tribes of Israel. His object is rather to show that, by a critical study of Biblical documents, we can discover the Israelites, at an early date, on the same plane of barbarism, with all its incidents of peculiar laws, beliefs, and customs, which can now be observed among the American Indians; that whatever, among the Israelites of later days, is nobler, stronger, or higher, is the result of outlying or accidental causes—that the Indians, if their development had not been interrupted, might have travelled the same road forward and upward. Col. Mallery carries his parallel through the following subjects: Religious opinions, including belief in a future state; religious practices, including shamans (in comparison with Levites), witches, dreams and divinations, pollution and purification, sacrifice, incense, the Sabbath and circumcision; parallel myths; sociology, including government, punishment, land, and marriage. He then draws his conclusion, which comes mainly to this, that the Israelites are in no sense a peculiar people.

There is undoubtedly much truth in Col. Mallery's comparisons, but also not a little overstatement and hasty generalizing. He follows in the lead of Buckle, Tylor, and other modern writers in calling the Israelites of the first commonwealth ignorant and barbarous, as compared with other nations of their own day. Undoubtedly, in mere material progress, Jerusalem and Samaria were behind Memphis and Thebes, Tyre and Damascus, Nineveh and Babylon. They were the capitals of a nation of farmers and shepherds, and had to borrow elsewhere the skill of the builder, the sculptor, the sailor. The art of writing came to the Hebrews from the conquered Canaanites; but while the remnants of Canaanite or Phœnician writings are few, and these few utterly worthless, the Hebrews employed the Phœnician alphabet for the most powerful and most lasting literature which the world has yet seen. Col. Mallery thinks that during their exile the ignorant captives received the mythology of their more advanced Babylonian masters. It is more probable that the myths of the Euphrates valley had been current among the Hebrews ever since the days when their fathers travelled westward from Haran to Gerar and Beersheba, and the talent was found among them to give to these myths a high moral significance, while the Babylonian version, as we find it in the Izdubar epos, is both gross and grotesque. A people which had produced an Isaiah, Amos, Micah, and Jeremiah had in mental and moral science nothing good to learn from Babylonian or Persian, though, unfortunately for mankind, they learned some sad lessons from the latter.

In comparing the institution of the year of jubilee, as sketched in Leviticus, with the tribal holdings of land among the Indians, Col. Mallery, it seems to us, hits very wide of the mark. On one side there is no private property in land at all; on the other side, property in land run mad. Suppose the estates of England were all held in strict settlement, as many of them are, and laws were passed to forbid the breaking of entails, we should then find what to the writer of Leviticus appeared as the ideal system of land tenure. The spirit of the system is found in Naboth, who braved death rather than sell his vineyard to the King; and in the prophets Elijah and Elisha, who avenged the blood of Naboth on the royal house of Omri. In fact, private property in land is the first necessity wherever the vine, the olive, the fig, and the palm tree furnish the most highly valued crops — for which reason no village communities were ever found in Greece any more than in Palestine.

Col. Mallery will seek in vain for clanship by the mother's side among the oldest and most barbarous Israelites. The patriarchs taught their sons to marry brides from a good (that is, from their own) family. Jacob's great merit is, that he travelled a thousand miles to find his fair cousins, Rachel and Leah, while Esau gratified his impulses by taking for wives, the first best, "daughters of Heth." This feeling is preserved among the Arabs of the desert in our days, and hardly less among the "first families" of Virginia. The son of the noble wife (*Sherifah*) is preferred to the son of the bondwoman or concubine; but Ishmael, as well as Isaac, Dan or Naphtali—as well as Reuben and Simeon—claims heirship from the father.

The people of Israel, Col. Mallery says, were naturally no more monotheistic or endowed with higher moral notions than the nations around them: it was only the prophets who pushed forward, and who finally enforced, the purer moral and religious teachings. But who were those prophets, and why did the people listen to them? The kingly power aided the prophets but seldom; in the northern kingdom, never. Foreign alliances led Solomon into idolatry; they perverted even some of the high priests of the second commonwealth. It was the mass of the people whom the prophets addressed; from these they obtained the assent to a moral code, including the marriage laws, on which all modern civilization is based. While no Israelite has ever made any notable invention in natural science, or in the useful arts, it seems that the race did, in the days of the prophets, beginning in the mists of the unhistoric past and ending with the disciples, show a talent for developing moral ideas which stamps it as peculiar. This talent is but a part of a strong mental fibre plainly to be seen in our days wherever the pressure of the Middle Ages is removed. If in the Jews of Poland and Russia the old Oriental pride and refinement have been pretty thoroughly crushed out, they still do not lack other qualities by which they rapidly come to the front wherever freedom gives them the opportunity.

Col. Mallery may be right in predicting the speedy advent of the time "when both Indian and Israelite will be absorbed in the universal man"; but then the Indian's memory will only live in the by-ways of ancient history, while the Israelite will have impressed himself on the modes of thought and on the laws of all mankind.

Altspanisches Lesebuch, mit Grammatik und Glossar. Von Dr. Adolf Keller. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1890. 8vo, viii.–192 pp.

THE number of carefully edited texts available for the study of the older stages of the Spanish language, previous to the seventeenth century, is as yet deplorably small. In fact, W. Förster's edition of Guillen de Castro's play "Las Mocedades del Cid" (Bonn, 1878) and Reinhard Stöttner's reprint of the "Amphitrion," by Fernan Perez de Oliva (Munich, 1886) are the only critical editions prepared for class use of which we know, while for the oldest period of the language, embracing the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, nothing similar has as yet been done. It was therefore with no little pleasure that we noticed last summer the announcement of an 'Altspanisches Lesebuch' intended to introduce the student of Romance philology to the study of Old Spanish by offering him a selection of old texts, some of which are otherwise not easily accessible.

As it now lies before us, however, the book is somewhat disappointing. Not that the material presented is badly chosen or lacks variety: the editor has given us specimens of every class of literature cultivated in Spain during the first three centuries of its literary life. The epic poetry of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries is represented by selections from the poem of the Cid, the 'Libro de Apollonio,' the works of Gonzalo de Berceo, the 'Libro de Alexandre'; the prose, by extracts from the Fueros and other documents relating to the reign of Alfonso the Learned, while the literature of the fourteenth century is illustrated by selections from D. Juan Manoel, the poem of Alfonso XI., Juan Raiz, the 'Danza de la Muerte,' the poem of the Conde Fernan Gonzalez, the 'Rimado del Palacio,' and others. But in order to give such a variety of material within the small compass of 135 pages, the editor was obliged to make the extracts very brief, and herein consists one of the principal defects of the book. To cite only one instance, 288 lines are utterly inadequate to give one an even approximately correct idea of the spirit, the language, in short, of the character, of so important a literary document as the 'Poema del Cid.' While the extract from this poem occupies not quite eight pages, as many as twenty-eight are allotted to selections from the works of Gonzalo de Berceo, many of which might have been omitted without doing injustice to their literary or linguistic value.

Another, and far more serious, shortcoming of Keller's book is the total absence of anything like textual criticism, the editor having evidently contented himself with naming, at the head of each extract, some of the collections and works in which the several selections are either published or discussed. Now, most of the editions quoted by Keller as forming the basis of his text—and he fails to tell us what, if any, method he followed in using them—are uncritical, and hence unreliable, inasmuch as they present us not the original text, but mostly later and more or less corrupted copies, texts the faultiness of which encouraged later editors to venture upon arbitrary corrections. Such is the case, for instance, with the collection of Spanish classics known as the 'Biblioteca de Rivadeneyra,' largely used by Keller for his book. In order to furnish, as he claims to do, the student of Romance philology with a truly

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useful text-book for Old Spanish, it was imperative for Keller to go back to the first editions, or, better still, to the best manuscripts wherever such were accessible, scrupulously reproducing the text as presented by them, and giving careful account of every emendation that he saw fit to make. That Keller should have neglected to do this is all the more regrettable as his residence in the capital of Spain must have offered him unusual opportunities for consulting some of the originals of these literary treasures.

Again, the texts presented by Keller contain, as every one knows, much that needs explanation, and for the elucidation of which very little has as yet been done. It was therefore incumbent upon the editor of the 'Altspanisches Lesebuch' to explain the allusions to customs and events, the obsolete phrases and difficult constructions occurring in the text, such as, for instance (p. 1), *la carneia diestra, siniestra* (p. 13), *negro dia* (p. 108), *un mur de franca barbà* (p. 117), *la barba cayda;* grammatical peculiarities such as (p. 108) *la su yantar comida*, where the infinitive *yantar* is treated as a feminine, very likely owing to its frequent association with *la cena*. Here, too, Keller has failed to offer any assistance whatsoever. In the grammar and the appendix on dialectic peculiarities, we should have liked to find references to the scientific literature bearing on these subjects, such as Gessner's treatise on 'Das Altleonesische' (Berlin, 1867), Morel-Fatio's article on the 'Libro de Alexandre' (*Romania* iv.), J. Cornu's articles published in the *Romania*, and Baist's treatise on Spanish grammar in Gröber's 'Grundriss,' pp. 689–714.

The book closes with a glossary giving (or rather pretending to give) all the forms occurring in the text. Here again the want of judgment and method makes itself felt. In the first place, it was useless to mention *allega, castigo*, etc., besides *allegar, castigar*, forms like *enno* for *enlo*, etc., which are explained in the grammatical appendix. By omitting such superfluous material, the vocabulary could have been reduced to nearly one-half of its size. In the second place, the editor would have greatly added to the usefulness of the glossary by referring to at least one passage where each word or signification of a word occurs. Finally, a good many vocables or special meanings have been omitted. Suffice it to mention (p. 33) the figurative expressions for Satan: *rezin malo, draco traydor*, so common in the language of the time; (p. 36) *monge* in the sense of "hermit," not "monk" (cf. *Mod. Lang. Notes* ii., p. 59-60); (*ib.*) *adrede*, and (p. 108) *enjundias*. But numerous and serious as may be the shortcomings of Keller's attempt to give us an Old Spanish Reader, it was certainly well meant, and this may, for the present at least, be welcomed as a convenient collection of specimens of early Spanish.

Lectures on Russian Literature. By Ivan Panin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THESE lectures are chiefly interesting as coming from the pen of a Russian who has lived out of Russia long enough to make an independent acquaintance with English and American writers, which enables him to draw comparisons between the productions of the principal authors of his native land and those authors who are most familiar to the great mass of the English-reading public. The first lecture is particularly good; the summary of character, aims, and general preparation of his subject, including the well-chosen quotations from the writings of Turgeneff and Tolstoi, and the comparison with Dickens, are just and instructive. Much that is said of Pushkin and Gogol is also just, especially as to the difference between the humor of Gogol and of various English writers. In the lecture on Turgeneff, many points are well brought out; but Turgeneff should not have been used at the end as a "terrible example," for the moral glorification of Count Tolstoi. As a *Russian* writer, Turgeneff is distinctly the superior of Tolstoi in at least two directions. The lectures on Tolstoi form the weakest point of the book. There is too much rethreshing of a subject whose proper place is not in a volume of criticism. The little that is said of Tolstoi's methods is good, but his defects—which should have been alluded to, since it is done in the case of the other writers under discussion—are deliberately ignored. In the last lecture, what one might almost designate as flings at society and societies which are personally obnoxious to the lecturer, reduces it to the rank of a narrow local sermon, and destroys its harmony with the design of the book. Certain peculiarities of language, incident upon the fact that Mr. Panin is not writing in his native tongue, should be mentioned. They only become unpleasant when he preaches. The lectures should have been partly rewritten before being consigned to the wider publicity of a printed volume, and revised by some unprejudiced person acquainted with the subject, in order that they might be relieved of the aggressive personal element which is out of place in critical work.

Life of John Milton. By Richard Garnett, LL.D. (Great Writers Series.) London: Walter Scott. 1890.

DR. GARNETT'S task in writing a short life of Milton was not an easy one, although he falls heir to Masson's exhaustive labors, for Milton's literary position and personal character offer very trying matter to the critic; indeed, there are few authors about whom it is more dangerous to write from first impressions and superficial examination, nor has there as yet been an entirely sympathetic and intelligent narrative of his intellectual life. Dr. Garnett devotes much attention to two points. In the first place, he protests against Mark Pattison's expressed regret that Milton did not devote himself to a purely literary and scholastic career, and he has little difficulty in winning assent to his view that Milton, without interest in public affairs, would have been dwarfed and weakened in all his genius, to say nothing of the loss of the shining memory he left as a patriot. In the second place, he brings prominently forward the poetic temperament of Milton, his sensibility and impulsiveness, so antithetic to the ordinary conception of him as a stern and self-mastered man of an iron and Puritan mould. He cites in support of his view the dependence of Milton on external suggestion in writing his poems; his marriage, with its repeated precipitancy of action—first in the marriage itself, then in the composition of the book upon Divorce, and lastly in receiving his wife back; his romantic sacrifice of his eyesight in the service of the State, and several other leading facts of his life, all tending to the exhibition of "the impulsive passion" of a poet's nature. Both of these points are of prime consequence in the framing of our idea of Milton, and are to be insisted upon.

In other respects the volume repeats the familiar story of Milton's life with much grace of narrative and great carefulness in the detail, in a literary and scholarly spirit. The needful criticism appears from time to time in the proper place. It is clear, pointed, well-articulated, and covers what has been said both in praise and dispraise of Milton. It is helped by a thorough knowledge of poetic literature, and in one or two places is varied by some curious parallelisms with Calderon, where it is impossible that either poet should have known the other's work; and throughout it is supported by the author's firm and unrelaxing hold of the principles of all poetic criticism, which he will not abandon at the bidding of Milton's great fame. In some matters of detail, however, it is impossible for us to agree with him, as in the depreciation of the part of the *Elder Brother* in "Comus," and in the admiration for *Satan* (though in this Dr. Garnett has the weight of general opinion in his favor) as a really heroic figure. The discussion of the prose is admirable. Altogether this brief life seems to us to come very near to a truthful account of the poet, and certainly to exceed its few rivals in all essentials. A full bibliography and an index make it the best starting-point for a study of Milton.

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